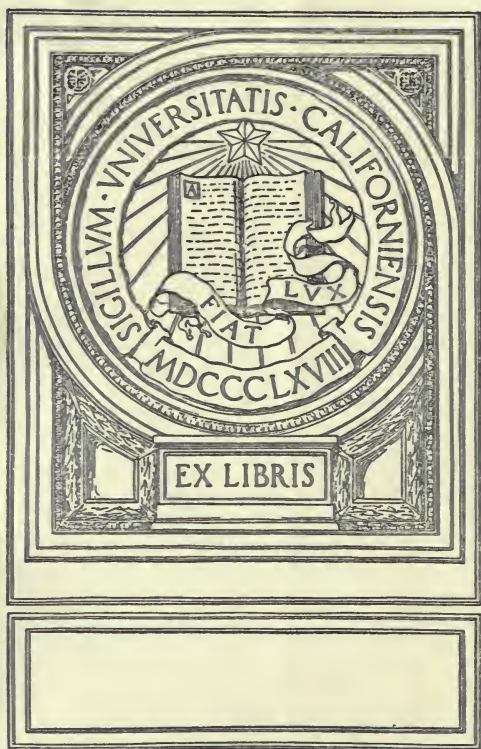


A HISTORY OF STATE EDUCATION IN VICTORIA

by

Edward Gurruma, M.A., Charles R. Long, M.A.
and
Dr. John Smith

University of
Melbourne
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THE HON. J. WILBERFORCE STEPHEN,
FIRST MINISTER OF PUBLIC
INSTRUCTION.



THE HON. SIR ALEXANDER J. PEACOCK,
PRESENT MINISTER OF PUBLIC
INSTRUCTION.

A HISTORY OF STATE EDUCATION IN VICTORIA

PART I. By Edward Sweetman, M.A., Dip. Edn., Harbison-Higinbotham Research Scholar (Melb.), Lecturer in History and Education, Teachers' College; Author of "Constitutional Development of Victoria, 1851-6."

PART II. By Charles R. Long, M.A., Editor of "The School Paper" and "The Education Gazette and Teachers' Aid;" Author of "Stories of Australian Exploration," etc.

PART III. By John Smyth, M.A., D.Phil., Professor of Education in the University of Melbourne and Principal of the Teachers' College, Education Department, Victoria; Author of "The Rural School in Australasia," etc.

With an Introduction by—

Sir ALEXANDER J. PEACOCK, K.C.M.G.
Minister of Public Instruction



Published for—

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INTRODUCTION

The publication of this book is one among the many things I am proud to say my Department is doing at the present time to commemorate the jubilee of the passing of the *Education Act 1872*, with its provisions of free, secular, and compulsory education for the children of Victoria.

In its pages is presented subject-matter of vivid interest to the parent whose children are participating in the advantages of a liberal education; to the citizen concerned in the well-being of the community and the making of wise laws; and to the student of social history, in which the measures taken to provide education play so prominent a part.

As the story unfolds, the reader is able to trace the gradual development of our far-reaching arrangements to provide all our children with the elements of a sound education, and those specially gifted with continued training up to the technical school and the University. He notes with a feeling of curiosity the details of the movement to erect a building to serve as a school on weekdays and a church on Sundays for the settlement that had its beginning on the banks of the Yarra in 1835; he learns of the establishment of the Denominational and National School Boards in the early fifties, and finds that, after some years' experience, the people desire a change and Parliament grants it by the creation, in 1862, of a combined board in place of two rival boards; he perceives that the growing sense of the people is desirous of a form of control more amenable to public opinion than that of a board allocating a Government grant; and traces the steps that led, in 1872, to the substitution for it of an Education Department with

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a responsible Minister of the Crown at its head. In the growth of the activities of that Department during the fifty years that have followed, as manifested in the increase of types of schools, in the variety of courses of study, in the improved conditions under which school work is being done, and in many other directions, he will find a striking example of energy as displayed by people of British stock in new lands.

The story has fallen naturally into three divisions—the first dealing with the period antecedent to the *Education Act 1872*, the second that from 1872 to 1901, and the third the period 1901 to 1922 which deals with the changed administration under the first Director of Education.

The picture of the state of our educational system to-day, presented in the concluding chapters of this book, should serve to satisfy our people that Victoria has in these fifty years travelled far towards the goal of providing most liberal and wide-spread facilities for the development of a country's greatest national resource—the brains and hearts of its children.

To Professor John Smyth, Mr. Charles R. Long, and Mr. Edward Sweetman, officers of my Department, who, knowing the value and interest of the story they could tell, asked permission to place it on record without promise of reward, I tender my best thanks.

A large, stylized handwritten signature in dark ink, appearing to read 'A. J. Evans'.

Minister of Public Instruction.

Education Office,
Melbourne.

13th September, 1922.

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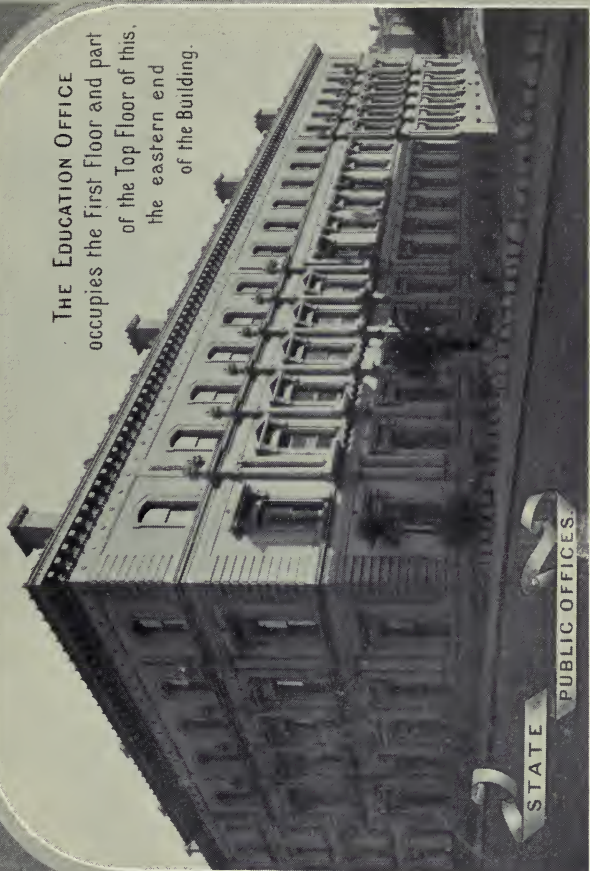
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THE EDUCATION OFFICE
occupies the First Floor and part
of the Top Floor of this,
the eastern end
of the Building.



STATE
PUBLIC OFFICES.



1, The First Schoolhouse, Melbourne. 2, The Central School, Melbourne, in 1857 (a National School).

A HISTORY OF STATE EDUCATION IN VICTORIA.

1835—1922.

PART I.—BOARD CONTROL (1835—1872).

*By Edward Sweetman, M.A., Dip. Edn., Lecturer
in History and Education, Teachers' College,
Melbourne.*

CHAPTER I.

FIRST FOUNDATIONS.

The Beginning of Melbourne.—The little village which had its beginnings on the banks of the Yarra Yarra River in June, 1835, was named Melbourne by Sir Richard Bourke, Governor of New South Wales, when he visited the infant settlement in March, 1837. At the time of his arrival, the hamlet was just struggling into modest visibility. It grew, however, with marvellous rapidity—a growth which caused the people of Van Diemen's Land to refer to it as the “mushroom town.” From the time when the Port Phillip District was opened up by settlers, Governor Bourke had in view its educational needs. As early as the 10th of October, 1835, he wrote concerning the Port Phillip District to Lord Glenelg, Secretary of State for the Colonies: “I would earnestly recommend that a provision be made for schools in which children of different religious tenets may be instructed without distinction, on the plan now adopted in Ireland.”*

*In July, 1836, the Legislative Council of New South Wales passed a grant of £3,000 for the establishment in that colony

In this way, he enunciated for the first time an educational policy for the province which afterwards became the colony of Victoria.

Aboriginal School.—The first school founded in the Port Phillip District was one for the children of the aborigines in the vicinity of the little settlement. It was established towards the end of 1836, by order of Governor Bourke, and was situated not far from the present site of the Botanical Gardens. The first teacher in charge of this school was Mr. George Langhorne, who was assisted for a time by Mr. John Thomas Smith, afterwards Mayor of Melbourne. At no time did its attendance number more than twenty-eight pupils. When Bishop Broughton, head of the Anglican Church in New South Wales, came to Melbourne in April, 1838, he visited the school, where he found that progress had been made by the young aborigines in reading and religious knowledge. Unfortunately, some of the adult natives showed a marked animosity towards the little school. Mr. Langhorne sent one of the aboriginal boys into the bush to bring in a cow. While on his errand, the lad was seized by some of the hostile natives, murdered, and his body buried. The career, however, of the first school in the Port Phillip District was not of long duration. It terminated in the year 1839. Other aboriginal schools were later established in the district. One of them in particular will claim our attention in a subsequent chapter.

of the Irish National System. Such a storm of opposition, however, was raised against the plan by certain sections of the colonists that Governor Bourke abandoned the project. In the same year, Government aid to schools and teachers underwent a change. Teachers appointed from 1836 were entitled to claim an amount equal to the sum of the fees and subscriptions received from their schools. This method of granting State aid to the teachers was designated "the half-and-half principle." The system proved expensive to the Government, which abolished it in 1841, and introduced a policy of retrenchment. For the general history of education in New South Wales, the reader should consult *A Brief History of Education in Australia*, by S. H. Smith.

First School for White Children.—Towards the end of the same year that witnessed the opening of the aboriginal school, a few of the settlers held a public meeting in their little village. A proposal was put forward at the gathering by Mr. Gellibrand, who was murdered by the blacks early in 1837. He suggested that the settlers should unite to erect a building, to be used for divine services on the Sabbath and for school purposes during the week. The proposal was carried, and, in April, 1837, a low-roofed wooden building, capable of holding about eighty people, rose near the corner of William-street and Little Collins-street. This, the first public building erected in Melbourne, displaced a sheepfold used by John Batman for the flock which he grazed in the locality. The cost of the building was met for the most part by the settlers themselves, irrespective of creed, the subscription list being headed with £50 by Batman. When Governor Bourke came to Melbourne in the early part of 1837, he contributed a similar amount towards the expense of the building. In front of the edifice was erected a rough wooden structure, supporting an old ship's bell, which served to call the people of the settlement to their devotions on the Sabbath and to summon the children to their tasks on the week-days. In November of 1837, a Quaker named Backhouse visited Melbourne, and, in the account which he wrote of the settlement, mentioned the schoolhouse. The first public reference to the school was made in January, 1838, when it was opened by Mr. J. A. Clarke, headmaster, and his assistant, Mr. W. M. Abbott. Unfortunately, most of the records connected with this school were destroyed when it was pulled down. Bishop Broughton has left on record that a committee, with Captain Lonsdale as president, was acting for the school in 1838. The schoolhouse was built on a block of land which had been granted to the Church of England. Hence the building, which had been erected by the united efforts of the settlers, was claimed as, and became the property of, that Church.

But, from this time onwards, separate efforts to provide educational facilities for the children of Melbourne began to be made both by private individuals and by the different churches.

Private Schools: Scots' School.—Concerning the first efforts put forward by the former, the following information is furnished by Captain Lonsdale's letters. In March, 1837, he communicated with Governor Bourke in reference to the appointment of a clergyman and a schoolmaster. He wrote: "I take it for granted that these indispensable advantages will, as soon as circumstances permit, be procured in the usual established manner." Early in 1839, he recorded that, towards the end of the previous year, there were four private schools in Melbourne, giving instruction to 166 pupils. Further accounts of, and humorous stories connected with, some of the schoolmasters in charge of private schools about this period are to be found in the second volume of *Chronicles of Early Melbourne*, by "Garryowen." Amongst the efforts put forward by the churches, those connected with the Presbyterians were the most vigorous and the most successful. The *Port Phillip Patriot* informs us that, in the decade of the thirties, Melbourne possessed a good percentage of Scotchmen, who had brought with them their love for, and interest in, education. After occupying for some time a wooden structure in Collins-street East, the Presbyterians, who were actively supported by their pastor, the Rev. James Forbes, M.A., determined to erect a more substantial building to serve as a school and as a temporary church. In September, 1839, their new brick schoolhouse, containing two rooms, was ready for use, and became known as Scots' School. It was the first public school opened in the Port Phillip District, and long remained the pride of the early inhabitants of Melbourne. It had a fine career, and was frequently alluded to in the press as "our noble schoolhouse." The *Port Phillip Patriot* records

that, towards the end of 1839, there were one hundred and fifty children in the Scots' School, under two excellent teachers, Messrs. Campbell and McLure; that the Anglican School had an attendance of between forty and fifty; and that the Roman Catholics were taking steps to open a school. The curriculum of the schools in Melbourne included reading, writing, grammar, and geography. Fees ranged from one shilling to two shillings a week, and from ten shillings to twenty shillings a quarter. The stipends of the teachers were, of course, made up of fees and Government grant under the regulations of 1836.

Higher Education.—Information concerning facilities for secondary education in this decade is meagre. But, from an early issue of the *Port Phillip Patriot* in 1839, it is evident that private tuition in mathematics and classics was obtainable. In the latter part of the next decade, there were several good educational establishments in Melbourne, where an advanced course of study could be pursued. But, during the early years of the forties, the need of opportunities for a higher education was felt rather severely. Some parents, who found that an advanced education for their children was not easily procured in Melbourne, sent them to colleges in Sydney. The press urged the Government to set apart a portion of Crown land for the establishment and support of a local college. For this establishment, it was proposed that from twenty-five to thirty acres of land should be allotted in a suitable position and within a reasonable distance of Melbourne. In this way, it was hoped that provision would be made to educate "the future senators of Australia Felix," and provide men of scholastic ability from whose ranks the learned professions could be filled. Sydney, it was true, could supply the necessary facilities, but that educational center was six hundred miles away. Hence a strong feeling began steadily to arise in the pro-

vince that Melbourne should provide speedily and adequately for the higher education of its youth.

The Proposed Port Phillip College.—The feeling that there should be a college in Melbourne to which parents of all creeds could send their children gave rise, in July, 1840, to a definite plan for such an institution. It was then that a proposal was put forward by a number of prominent citizens to found a proprietary college, similar to certain Sydney seminaries. After some preliminary meetings, a committee was appointed to draw up a report, setting out the general scheme for the proposed institution. When the committee furnished its report, it suggested that the course of study should include: (a) English, grammar, and elocution; (b) writing, arithmetic, book-keeping, geography, and history; (c) mathematics, the elementary branches of natural philosophy, and natural history; and (d) the ancient classics, and such modern languages as might be thought necessary.

The important question of religious instruction occupied a considerable amount of attention in the committee's report. Their discussion of it, the members said, had led them to recommend the system adopted at a seminary, called the Martinière, in Calcutta. The precedent established there, they considered, might, with advantage, be followed in Melbourne. For this institution, a scheme of instruction had been drawn up by the Protestant and Roman Catholic bishops and the senior minister of the Church of Scotland in the Indian capital. In this plan, it was proposed that the fundamental truths of Christianity should be communicated daily and publicly, it being left to the pastors of the different denominations to teach their several tenets to the youth of their respective flocks. Special provision was made to safeguard the particular doctrines of the various creeds. The head-master, however, was to be a member of the Church of England. The

government of the institution, which was to be called "The Port Phillip College," was to be placed in the hands of a president, two vice-presidents, and ten directors. The meeting which received the report decided that the Government should be requested to give a grant of land suitable for the purposes of the proposed college. Application for such a grant was made to Governor Gipps, through Mr. C. J. La Trobe, the Superintendent of the Port Phillip District. About the same time, a protest was made against this by the Rev. P. B. Geoghegan, Vicar-General of the Roman Catholic Church in Melbourne. In a letter of protest, he set out a statement of his objections against certain principles of the proposed college. Governor Gipps, however, instructed La Trobe to take the preliminary steps towards securing a suitable site for the college. Accompanied by several members of the committee, La Trobe inspected the environs of the town, and finally selected a reserve of five acres to the north-east, near the site of the present Carlton Gardens. For some reason, which it is difficult to determine precisely, the grant of land was never completed. The project for the establishment of the Port Phillip College was referred to in the press for months, and even years afterwards, but it gradually fell into abeyance, and was never revived.

The Press and Education.—While the committee of the proposed Port Phillip College was busy with its plans, the Melbourne newspapers took up the question of how to provide an advanced education for the youth of the town. During the early part of 1841, in particular, the subject received considerable attention. A college education was deemed to be a legitimate ambition for every aspiring boy or girl. A board for the control of education, with laymen as members, was strongly advocated. Teachers were to be chosen, irrespective of creed; competency for their profession was to be the main essential. What the character of such secondary education should be was

carefully dealt with. It was laid down that it should be on a broad and liberal basis: the program of instruction was to provide not only for literary subjects, but also for the teaching of the various branches of agriculture and other pursuits connected with the soil. At least one hundred and fifty acres of land were to be set aside by the Government in order to make such a plan of study possible. For the literary course, the press advocated the teaching of English, grammar, writing, arithmetic, history, drawing, chemistry, Latin, and Greek. Opportunities were also to be afforded for learning French, Spanish, and Italian. The study of chemistry and agriculture was to proceed hand in hand, so that the future farmers of the province should understand the scientific treatment of the soil. Though, at the time, the Port Phillip District did not possess a university, the press advocated that facilities should be provided whereby preparation could be made to help students to qualify for entrance later to such an establishment. It was suggested that the seminary should be vested in trustees, staffed with competent masters, and rendered independent of both State and Church. It was hoped that, in this way, the fate which had overtaken the Port Phillip College would be avoided. In supporting the plan just mentioned, the press gave no niggardly space to make known these opinions. It is greatly to the credit of the early newspapers of Melbourne that they so strongly supported the cause of education, and that their views thereon were wide, and their ideals high.

Secondary Schools.—The pressing need of opportunities for an advanced education was, ere long, partly met by the efforts of private individuals. During the latter part of the forties, some good academies were opened in Melbourne. Freedom of choice from amongst these swept away the objections which had been raised against a single college accommodating all creeds. One of the schools referred to was opened

by Mr. T. H. Braim, in 1841. This gentleman had been educated at St. John's College, Cambridge. His school provided for an advanced course in mathematics and the classics. His fees were six guineas a term. His wife helped in the educational duties and superintended a young ladies' residential side to the academy. Music, French, and drawing formed part of their course. Eighty guineas a year was charged for residence and tuition. Another advanced school, under the Rev. William Brickwood, was the "Port Phillip Academical Institution." The school taught by Mr. Fraser in connexion with the Independent Church in Collins-street long enjoyed a considerable reputation as a fine academy. In 1847, a classical school was opened by Mr. R. H. Budd, M.A., an old pupil of Dr. Arnold of Rugby. Mr. Budd had graduated with mathematical honors at Cambridge. Later, in 1849, Bishop Perry, of the Anglican Church, persuaded him to open a Church of England Grammar School on a piece of land belonging to St. Peter's. This school was carried on until about eighteen months before the foundation of the present Church of England Grammar School was laid in July, 1856. Mr. Budd afterwards became Inspector-General of Schools under the Board of Education—a position which he filled worthily until he retired on a pension in 1872.

The Melbourne Academy.—Towards the close of the forties, a project for a college was brought forward by the Melbourne Synod of the Free Church of Scotland. It was warmly supported by the Rev. J. Forbes, then pastor of the John Knox Church. The outcome of the proposition was that the Melbourne Academy was founded in Spring-street in 1851. This institution, whose first head-master was Mr. Robert Lawson, M.A., was later known as Scotch College.

CHAPTER II.

REV. JAMES FORBES, M.A.: OUR FIRST PUBLIC EDUCATIONIST.

Educational Retrenchment.—About the middle of 1839, Governor Gipps warned the Legislative Council that the expensive character of “the half-and-half principle” would necessitate either its amendment or its abolition. The latter course took place on September, 1841, when the Government passed regulations which cut down the educational grant in a drastic manner. Under the new system, teachers’ salaries were reduced considerably, and the outlook for State-aided schools was depressing. These results, which were not long in becoming manifest, led the Rev. James Forbes to take active steps to bring about their rectification. To pass over his gratuitous and meritorious services to the cause of education in the Port Phillip District in general, and to this period in particular, would be to do him a grave injustice. By his writings in the press and by his active interest in the schools of the Port Phillip District, he is justly entitled to rank as our first public educationist.

The Arrival of Forbes in Melbourne.—James Forbes was born at Aberdeenshire in 1814, and he graduated in Arts at King’s College, Aberdeen. Later, he entered the Presbyterian ministry, and was ordained at Glasgow. During the last three years of his stay in the homeland, he held the post of master of a school at Colchester. Under the influence of the Rev. Dr. D. Lang, he was induced to sail for New South Wales in 1837. After landing at Sydney late in the same year, he came on to Melbourne, where he resided until his death on the 12th of August, 1851. In Melbourne, he received a call from the Presbyterian Church, and

became its first regularly appointed minister. When the first Presbytery assembled in June, 1842, he occupied the position of Moderator.

His Educational Writings.—During the middle portion of the same year, he contributed a number of lengthy and illuminating articles to the press on the state of education in other countries, and on the need of its reform in the Port Phillip District. His voluminous writings were distinguished throughout by their freedom from narrowness and party spirit. His educational outlook was broad and sympathetic; it showed that he possessed no ordinary knowledge of the school systems in the leading countries of Europe. He endeavored throughout to impress upon the Government and the colonists what a perilous thing it was for a child to grow up uneducated, and what a loss the community sustained by allowing its youth to reach adult years in a state of ignorance. There were two sayings which he emphasized in support of his views on education, namely: "The schoolmaster is everything," and "Education is the cheap defence of nations." Both statements he proved to be practically identical: danger from within the country was ever his dominant thought. In the first of a series of eight letters to the press on education, he mentioned that the Presbyterian Church was, at that time, engaged in investigating the state of education in the Port Phillip District. He stated that he was even then aware that there were in Melbourne several hundred children who were not attending any school, and that, in Williamstown and Geelong, there were also many children who were receiving no education. In addition to these, there were, he said, all the "young immortals" scattered throughout the country districts and the bush, who were hopelessly beyond the reach of the influence of the school. He championed the educational rights of the children of pioneers, whose work lay far from the centers of civilization. He lamented that they were practically

doomed to lives of ignorance. These opinions were verified some few months afterwards when the Colonial Secretary of New South Wales declared that children in the bush were growing up not only in ignorance, but in a state approaching barbarism. Forbes strongly deprecated the new regulations of 1841. Capable teachers had always been scarce, and attendance at school unsatisfactory; now the former would become more difficult to secure, and the pupils would become still more irregular in attendance at school. He looked into the future of the Port Phillip District with grave misgivings: an ignorant population would become a positive menace to the province. Unless some active steps were taken, he feared that a very large percentage of the youth would grow up with their understandings uninformed, and their hearts unimpressed with the sense of their moral and religious obligations. "Woe be to any statesman," he wrote, "who bequeaths such a legacy to any country."

His Criticism and Advice.—In further letters, he acknowledged that the regulations of 1836 had led to extravagance; but he could not close his eyes to the repressive effect of the regulations of 1841. He advocated a compromise—a Government grant of a penny a day and a fixed fee of ten shillings a quarter for each child. This for a school of sixty pupils could give the master about £195 per annum: under the new regulations, salaries ran from about £50 to £100 a year. In pointing to the value of education to a community, he showed how Scotland had benefited by it, and how, in that country, crime had declined. His fourth letter treated, in a masterly manner, of the school systems of England, Scotland, France, and Prussia. He pointed out that, in the last-named country, though it was under an unlimited monarchy, two and a half per cent. of its revenue was devoted to public education. Under the late extravagant regulations of 1836, only two-thirds per cent. was

devoted to the same important purpose in Australia Felix for the year 1841. He openly confessed his admiration for that law in Prussia which required all boys to be sent to school from their sixth to their thirteenth year. He drew attention to the fact that Prussia provided seminaries for teachers and insisted that they should be thoroughly trained. He dealt at considerable length with the educational system in Scotland, and quoted the injunction of one of John Knox's followers: "Let every kirk have one school-master able to teach grammar and the Latin tongue, if the town be of any importance." The public were given an insight into the origin and progress of the British and Foreign School Society, into the principles of the national schools of England, and into Lord Stanley's Irish System, introduced into Ireland in 1831. He advocated the utmost consideration for the convictions of the various religious bodies on the question of education; he rejected the imposition of any system likely to be unkind, impolitic, or unpatriotic. Though a strong churchman, he acknowledged that it was extremely desirable to provide secular instruction for those who desired that only. He said that, in the Scots' School, the learning of the catechism was quite optional. He was opposed to the idea that the Government should take over the entire control of education—at least, for a very long time to come. The Government could not, he said, manage to keep the ruts filled in the streets of Melbourne, or remove many of the stumps in the roads. For some years to come, he thought, education might be left in the hands of the churches and of private individuals. What was wanted, he pointed out, was monetary assistance from the Government. In an article written about August, 1842, he informed the public that the report on the state of education in the Port Phillip District had come to hand. The genesis, development, and result of this inquiry will now claim our attention.

His Request for an Inquiry: 1842.—At the first meeting of the Port Phillip Presbytery, which was held in the Scots' Church on the 7th of June, 1842, the Rev. James Forbes spoke on the state of education in the Port Phillip District. Appalling facts concerning it, both in Melbourne and in other parts of the province, he said, had been brought under his notice. After referring to the extravagance of the education policy of Governor Bourke and the retrenching character of the policy brought in by Governor Gipps in 1841, he moved: "That this Presbyterian Synod is strongly impressed with a sense of the importance of public education, and with the alarming destitution of the means of education which exists; and that it now resolves to appoint a committee of its members to inquire into this subject and consider it in all its bearings; to investigate more particularly the means of education in Port Phillip, and the proportion they bear to the necessities of the population; to inquire into the working of the past and present regulations of the Government relative to schools; and to report on the premises as soon as possible." The motion was agreed to, and a committee was appointed to carry out the purposes expressed therein. Its members were the Rev. J. Forbes, M.A. (convener), the Rev. T. Gunn, the Rev. T. Mowbray, M.A., and Dr. Patrick. On the second of August, the committee presented its report to the Presbytery. It was of a comprehensive and illuminating character.

The Report.—The first matter dealt with was the actual extent of the means of education in Port Phillip. On this point, they had ascertained that there were, in Melbourne, schools connected with the Church of England, the Church of Scotland, the Wesleyan, the Independent, and the Roman Catholic denominations. There were also a number of private seminaries. From the statistics gathered, it appeared that schools attached to the various churches in Mel-

bourne were attended by two hundred and fifty-six pupils, and that private schools accounted for three hundred and seventy-nine. Out of Melbourne, there were one hundred and twenty-two pupils attending school. This made a total of seven hundred and fifty-seven, or, in round numbers, eight hundred. The population of Australia Felix was computed, from the census of March, 1841, to be something like 21,000. One-tenth of these, or 2,000 odd, were children between the ages of four and fourteen; yet not 800 of them were at school. All the young people of the interior, the children of the shepherds, agriculturists, sawyers, and others were almost hopelessly beyond the means of education. Their wide diffusion over the face of the country indicated that the outlook for them could not be improved for a long time to come. From inquiries made by the committee, it was calculated that, in Melbourne alone, 300 children were growing up without instruction of any kind. A similar distressing state of affairs existed in Geelong and in all the other towns. The committee drew special attention to the fact that they had found scarcely any pupils at school above the age of twelve years. They furnished a financial statement, showing that, during the year 1841, £947 had been granted under the regulations of 1836 for the education of 479 pupils. Under the new regulations of September, 1841, the grant for 1842 to the date of the report was only £71. All these facts thus brought to light caused the committee to place on record their conviction that the next generation of people in the Port Phillip District bade fair to be more ignorant than the existing one. In conclusion, they urged that no pains should be spared to remove the causes which had produced such a lamentable state of education in the district.

Its Results.—The Presbytery unanimously adopted the report, and passed resolutions affirming that the existing system of education was altogether inade-

quate, and that a memorial should be presented to Governor Gipps, asking for the abolition of the regulations of 1841. The memorial was prepared and dispatched. In due course, an answer was received; it was read at a meeting of the Presbytery on the 11th of November. It was not a cheering one, in that it conveyed the news of the Government's inability to rescind the obnoxious regulations, or to improve the state of education or the salaries of the teachers. The impoverished state of the finances, the letter intimated, prevented an increase of expenditure. The Governor's communication was indeed of the only kind then possible, for New South Wales was, at the time, passing through a period of great depression. Thus ended the investigation of 1842. It failed apparently to accomplish its purpose. It did, however, open the eyes of the colonists of Port Phillip to the unhappy conditions of education within their province; it placed on record for posterity an account of education in Port Phillip during the year 1842; and it remained an enduring monument to the indefatigable zeal, the disinterested motives, and the patriotic efforts of the Rev. James Forbes to make education in his adopted country more efficient and widespread. That the apprehensions expressed by the committee were not groundless was shown by a statement made in a portion of the leading article in the *Port Phillip Herald* on the 15th of November, 1844. It read: "Here in one of the most important appendages to the British Crown, not one-third of the population can read or write. In traversing the streets, the eye is arrested by groups of almost cladless children idling their time throughout the day. We shudder when we look at them, and think of the estimates put forward, year by year, for new and enlarged gaols."

The Inquiry of 1844.—The Presbytery's inquiry of 1842 into the state of education in the Port Phillip District was followed, in 1844, by one in New South Wales proper. It owed its origin to the Legislative

Council, and derived much of its life and definite results from Mr. Robert Lowe, afterwards Lord Sherbrooke, and then a nominee member of the New South Wales Legislature. In the report of the select committee appointed to conduct the investigation, it was shown that, out of 25,076 children in New South Wales between the ages of four and fourteen, 13,000 were receiving no education at all. The committee attributed this state of affairs partly to the want of good school-masters and good schoolbooks, and partly to the ignorance, dissolute habits, and avarice of the parents. They felt bound, however, to state their conviction that a far greater portion of the evil had arisen from the strictly denominational character of the schools. Some of these, they admitted, had attained a considerable degree of excellence; but the system as a whole met with their condemnation. It was impossible, the committee declared, not to see that the very essence of the denominational system was to leave the majority of children uneducated in order to imbue thoroughly the minority with certain tenets. It was a system always tending to excess or deficit, the natural result of which was that, wherever one new school was founded, two or three others would arise. This was not because they were wanted, but because the churches were jealous of one another. It also was unsuitable for thinly inhabited districts. This was admitted by its warmest supporters. Finally, the committee recommended the establishment of a uniform system of public schools to which State aid could be granted. They advocated the creation of a board of education, but opposed the idea of establishing the Irish National System.

An Indisputable Conclusion.—In comparing the results of the Port Phillip Presbytery's Report of 1842 and that of the Legislative Council's Report of 1844, we find that they agreed upon one very important question. This was that a large percentage of the children in the northern and in the southern por-

tion of the colony were growing up in absolute ignorance. Both reports urged that immediate and vigorous steps should be taken to place education in general upon a better and sounder footing. The turn in the education tide was, in truth, near at hand. Public feeling had been aroused. Though the regulations of 1841 were followed by others in 1847, which were by no means ameliorative, all the obnoxious regulations were rescinded by the year 1849. In the previous year, 1848, two educational boards—the National and the Denominational—were created. Both will claim our attention in a subsequent chapter.

CHAPTER III.

THE PROBLEM OF THE BUSH SCHOOL.

The Problem.—The early Port Phillip newspapers gave, as we have already seen, strong support to the cause of education for the young people of Melbourne. To their credit it can also be said that they early championed the cause of those children who lived in the remote parts of the colony, and who lacked even the most rudimentary facilities for learning. During the forties, several plans were formulated to cope with this problem, and one experiment at least was carried out which dealt successfully with the question. In the towns, there were hundreds of children who were not sent to schools by their parents; in the bush, and in the sparsely populated areas, the outlook for the children of the pioneers seemed almost hopeless. Some interesting discussions on this situation were presented to the reading public during 1846 by the *Port Phillip Gazette*. The question was raised as to how provision could be made for the education of children on the squatters' stations and in outlying country areas.

A Proposed Solution.—One plan advanced provided that a number of large seminaries should be situated at convenient distances throughout the interior. In these schools, children were to receive not only their education, but also their board and lodging. It was recognized that the expense of sending children to such schools would be beyond the means of shepherds and hut-keepers on stations. Hence, the scheme put forward provided that the Government should be asked to build schools from timber obtained in the bush, at a cost of £200 each. Towards the erection of these buildings it was thought that the squatters would render effective aid. Parents were to be asked

to send either twelve months' supply of provisions or money for the maintenance of the children. It was considered that, in this way, special schools could be erected for the different denominations.

Other Plans.—The *Port Phillip Christian Herald* also took up the subject. It calculated that there were over 2,000 children growing up in the bush without any education. Two definite plans were advanced to cope with the situation. The first proposed a system of itinerant teachers, who would ride from place to place; the second was that of providing boarding schools. Wherever thirty or forty children could be assembled, there it was considered a residential school should be established. The writer then added optimistically: "With a store of flour, sugar, tea, and a few sheep—why, the thing is done." But the solution of educating children in the unsettled areas was by no means so simple as the writer in the *Port Phillip Christian Herald* supposed. The latter portion of the forties, however, witnessed the bush day and boarding school successfully established at Boninyong (now Buninyong). It had an interesting and useful career.

A Successful Experiment at Boninyong.—A desire had long been felt by the Messrs. Learmonth, Boninyong, to establish a school at which the children of shepherds and persons in the bush could be boarded and taught at a rate they were able to afford. Conceiving, however, that the efficient working of such a school would require appropriate superintendence, they deferred making any actual effort until a clergyman should be stationed at Boninyong. When, in 1847, the Rev. T. Hastie,* of the Free Presbyterian Church, was stationed at this place, steps were taken to establish a day and boarding school, with the result

*It was through the instrumentality of the Rev. J. Forbes that Mr. Hastie, who had been stationed in Van Diemen's Land, came to Port Phillip.

that such an institution was opened in the following year. A subscription list had brought in £100 towards erecting the necessary buildings. These were constructed of wooden slabs, and plastered within. The parlor and bedroom of the master and mistress separated the boys' from the girls' dormitory, each capable of accommodating twenty pupils. Then there was a dining hall, a kitchen, a scullery, a bedroom for the servants, a workshop, and a schoolroom. The last-named was thirty feet by sixteen. The buildings were valued at £400, and the furniture at £150. Each boarder paid £10 a year for keep and tuition, the day-school pupils being charged a fee of ten shillings a quarter. The school, which was under the oversight of the Rev. T. Hastie, prospered beyond his anticipations. By the end of 1849, it had thirty-one boarders and twenty-two day-school pupils. The Rev. Mr. Hastie considered that the Boninyong experiment furnished every encouragement for the establishment of similar institutions in the bush. To secure efficiency in the school, he sent to Scotland for a married couple, both of whom were trained teachers. Some parents of the well-to-do class sent their children to the school; others in less fortunate circumstances received assistance from their employers and benevolent individuals. Three servants were employed, but the elder girls were required to assist in the housework, as part of their training. The lack of suitable schoolbooks was at first felt severely. To remove this difficulty, these were ordered direct from the Old Country. Children of all denominations attended the school; no distinctive principles of the Free Presbyterian Church were taught; no complaints on the ground of religious instruction were ever lodged by the parents of the children.

Affected by the Gold Discoveries.—But the expenditure connected with the school began to prove heavier than had been anticipated, and the fee of £10 had to be raised. When the goldfields were opened up in

1851, the price of provisions became much dearer. To add to the difficulties of the school, the gold-fever seized the master and mistress, and they left one night without informing anyone. The Rev. Mr. Hastie knew nothing of their departure until informed by the pupils next day. It is to the everlasting credit of the reverend gentleman that, rather than let the school become disbanded, he filled the post of school-master for three years. With the assistance of his wife, he kept the Boninyong School open during the excitement consequent upon the gold discoveries, and while many schools in Victoria were closed for the lack of teachers. The first inspector of denominational schools, Mr. H. C. E. Childers, B.A. (afterwards Chancellor of the Exchequer in England), who visited the institution in 1851, placed it in a proud position among the many schools he visited, by recording:—"The Boninyong school is the best I have seen in Victoria." There were two other schools started with a purpose similar to that at Boninyong: one was at Port Fairy, the other at Ballan, but neither obtained the reputation of the one conducted by Mr. Hastie. There was, however, another little school partly contemporary with that at Boninyong. It was of a totally different character, but it attracted more notice in the press. Its career is well worthy of being recorded.

The Yarra Aboriginal School.—In the early educational history of the Port Phillip District, there stood out, between the years 1846 and 1849, an interesting experiment which was undertaken for the purpose of educating some children of the aborigines. The project, which had no small measure of success during its short career, did not owe its origin to the Government, most of whose efforts in that direction produced only very doubtful results. In 1838, the Government of New South Wales established a protectorate in the Port Phillip District to safeguard the rights of the aborigines of that province. Protectors were

appointed to the various districts for the purpose of affording the natives the protection they might require in the early period of their intercourse with the whites, and of leading them from their wandering habits and savage propensities. The work of the protectorate proved a failure. The year which witnessed the establishment of the protectorate saw also the first missionary efforts put forward by the Wesleyans at Buntingdale to better the lot of the aborigines. Endeavors were made at that mission station to impart some literary education to the young blacks, a few of whom, years afterwards, showed that they had not forgotten how to read. But the most interesting and successful effort to educate young aborigines during the early years of the Port Phillip District was carried out at the Yarra Aboriginal School, which was situated at the junction of the Yarra Yarra River and the Merri Creek. It was, to some extent, under the protectorate, but mainly controlled by a committee connected with the Baptist Church, Collins-street, then under the leadership of the Rev. John Ham. The school, however, owed its success and fame to its teacher, Mr. C. J. Peacock. That gentleman won the confidence of the young natives, as well as that of their dusky parents. The story of the founding of the school is not devoid of interest.

Its Foundation.—In September of 1845, two or three native black children requested to be admitted to a Sunday-school which was being conducted by Mr. Peacock at Richmond, a village near Melbourne. Their wish was granted, and several others soon afterwards asked permission to join their companions. This suggested to Mr. Peacock the idea of establishing a separate Sunday-school for the special benefit of the young aborigines of the locality. The plan was carried out by opening a school at the junction of the Yarra Yarra River and the Merri Creek. On the Sabbath, the black children received some provisions, and also obtained more during the week. This, of

course, was done to retain them in the neighborhood. A further thought then occurred to Mr. Peacock and some friends who were taking an interest in his work. They determined to try an experiment. Not only did they propose to relieve the aboriginal parents of the entire responsibility of providing for their offspring in the matter of food and clothing, but they also determined to try to educate them. A temporary committee was formed, which raised £60, a sum sufficient to keep the little institution going for three months. Mr. Peacock was chosen to take charge of the school. The Government gave the premises, and, on the 1st of January, 1846, Mr. Peacock commenced his duties. His instructions were to teach the native children to read and write in the English language, and to instil into their minds such religious truths as would be most conducive to their mental and moral improvement. The school began auspiciously, and the numbers in attendance gradually increased to thirty-two. The children evinced great attachment to their teacher, and showed a desire to make advancement in learning. In spite of their great dislike of restraint, the pupils were won over to the duties of the schoolroom by the tact and kindness of their teacher.

Its Progress.—Between four and five months after the commencement of the school, a large meeting was held one evening in the Baptist Church, Collins-street, to give the public an opportunity of witnessing the scholastic attainments of the aboriginal pupils attending Mr. Peacock's school. There were twenty-three pupils present that evening. Mr. H. Moor, the Mayor of Melbourne, presided over the gathering—the largest of its kind which had ever assembled in the city. During the evening, the native children, who looked well clad, neat, and clean, sang in such an earnest manner that the audience was quite stirred with emotion. Some of the pupils read portions of the Scripture, others were tested in spelling, and one

boy in particular attracted the attention of the audience by his general proficiency. Mr. C. J. La Trobe, the Superintendent of the Port Phillip District, sent a donation of £5 to the school, and gave an order that Government rations should be supplied to the institution. Two Melbourne medical men—Drs. Wilkie and Howitt—volunteered free attendance to the black children, and liberal donations were sent in from the public to help on the work of the school. Mr. Peacock's success received flattering comment in the press. The educational work he had done was considered superior to that of the mission station at Buntingdale. In recognition of his arduous services—philanthropic, religious, and educative—Mr. Peacock was guaranteed a stipend of £1 per week.

Its Literary and Agricultural Activities.—The Yarra Aboriginal School, as it was called, owing to its connexion with the Yarra tribe of aborigines, ran successfully through a further twelve months. On the anniversary of the previous public meeting, the pupils again gave an exhibition of their attainments in education. A few of the elder boys showed that they could read and write well. Their copy-books would have been creditable to white schoolboys; the pages were free from blots, scratches, and dirt. The girls gave evidence that they had made good progress in sewing, and presented the Rev. J. Ham with a quilt which they had made. The report for the year stated that a considerable piece of ground had been fenced in, and a portion of it dug up, by the aboriginal boys, who had also sown a large paddock with wheat. From the products of their labors in the school garden, the young blacks were able to purchase shoes, shirts, trousers, and some frock-coats, which they particularly desired to possess. At this second meeting in May, 1847, the balance-sheet in connexion with the upkeep of the school was published in the press, which gave Mr. Peacock's work wide publicity.

Its Difficulties.—Though the school had prospered beyond expectation since its inception, Mr. Peacock had had to struggle against many peculiar difficulties, which now began to tell against all his efforts. Just as Mr. Langhorne, who opened the mission school for aborigines late in 1836, had to contend with the animosity displayed by hostile natives against his school, so Mr. Peacock had to face something of the same trouble. Fortunately, his worries did not include the murder of any of his pupils, as in the case of Mr. Langhorne's school; nevertheless, they proved very harrassing to Mr. Peacock and to his flock. The Yarra tribe had never interfered with the school-children, amongst whom were the sons of the chief. Another tribe, however, called the Sugarloaf tribe, made attempts to kidnap the elder boys. On one occasion, they sent a young lad to the school as a decoy, with the result that he got four of the eldest boys away from the school. They were then seized and carried off by the hostile tribe. Only after great difficulty did the teacher manage to get them back to the school.

Its Decline.—On another occasion, a black trooper attempted to abduct one of the pupils from the school. When Mr. Peacock expostulated with him, and finally rescued his charge, the trooper turned round and spat in the schoolmaster's face. Considerable annoyance was caused to the school by natives who came to claim some of the elder girls as their lubras, and stated that they had been promised to them by their parents. Mr. Peacock did not experience much cause for anxiety from the parents themselves, though they made it quite clear to him that they could not surrender their children altogether. They seemed to fear that, if the young blacks were taken away completely, they would not learn certain mysteries connected with the ceremonies of the tribe. Furthermore, the number of children in the Yarra tribe decreased in a marked manner. Contact with the whites caused the young women in the tribe to become

fewer in number, and, when children were born amongst those who remained, they were put to death if they were not full-blooded aboriginals. Friction also arose between the officials of the protectorate and Mr. Peacock, who later charged them with trying to induce pupils to leave his school. All the causes mentioned worked ill for the Yarra Aboriginal School, which now began to dwindle considerably in numbers, and to enter upon its last phase. That, however, did not take place before the little school had given the lie to those who were fond of affirming that the Australian aboriginal was akin to the baboon or the ourang-outang, and, therefore, non-educable.

Its Last Phase.—Mr. Peacock relinquished his post during 1848, and, though the school lingered on for a while under another teacher, the year 1849 saw the close of its existence. When the committee appointed by the Legislative Council of New South Wales in July, 1848, conducted its investigations into the work of the protectorate, the evidence given concerning the Yarra Aboriginal School was of no uncertain character. It proved conclusively that the school owed practically everything to Mr. Peacock's own personality, and to the power he possessed of winning the confidence, both of the adult natives and of their children. His school was an experiment; its success was marked but short-lived. It was not indeed possible for it to flourish for a lengthy period; the forces working against it were too strong. The fact, however, that Mr. Peacock accomplished what he did in spite of adverse circumstances justly entitles him to a prominent place in the educational history of the Port Phillip District.

CHAPTER IV.

SCHOOLS ON THE GOLDFIELDS.

The Discovery of Gold.—The year 1851 brought to Victoria not only separation from New South Wales, but also the discovery of very rich goldfields within its own borders. The exceptional richness of the auriferous areas brought to the young colony thousands of people from almost every civilized country in the world. Many people in the colony itself abandoned their ordinary avocations to try their fortunes on the goldfields.

Its Effect on the Schools.—Naturally enough, a large percentage of the teachers were smitten with the gold-fever. Schools became depleted of their staffs. Mr. C. Campbell, who succeeded Mr. Childers after his resignation as denominational inspector, reported that, owing to the gold-mania, schools in Melbourne and Geelong were poorly staffed, deficient in instruction, faulty in discipline, and irregularly attended. In October, 1851, the Anglican Bishop of Melbourne wrote specially to the Denominational Board upon the difficulties in which schools were placed owing to the disturbed state of society consequent upon the discovery of the goldfields. In some cases, there were no men left in the schools, and their complete control devolved upon the female teachers. Classes had to be amalgamated and placed under the remaining teachers, who declared that their salaries were most inadequate. The Bishop urged the Board to raise the salaries of the teachers without delay, otherwise the difficult position in which the schools were placed would probably become one impossible to cope with. The Board followed the Bishop's advice, and salaries rose first twenty-five, and later fifty, per cent.

Tent Schools: Denominational Board.—When the goldfields were opened up, the Denominational Board realized the need of placing educational facilities within reach of the miners' children. To meet the situation, the Board established tent schools, which could also be used as places for divine worship. In 1856, they had 50 such schools upon the different goldfields, with a total attendance of 3,326 pupils. This number, it was calculated, accounted for about one-ninth of the children of school age upon the various goldfields. Unfortunately, documentary evidence as to the working of these tent denominational schools is meagre compared with that available concerning those conducted on the goldfields by the National Board. But we know that, in the two years prior to the discovery of gold, the school fee averaged about 5½d. a week per child, and the teacher's salary, including fees, averaged £87. 10s. per annum. In 1853, fees had gone up fifty per cent., and the following scale of salaries, not including fees, was paid to teachers:—In the towns and on the goldfields: Masters, £120; mistresses, £90; male assistants, £100; female assistants, £70; sewing mistresses, £40; and pupil teachers, £15 to £30. In the country: Masters, £100; mistresses, £80; male assistants, £80 to £90; female assistants, £50 to £60; sewing mistresses, £30; and pupil teachers, £15 to £30.

Tent Schools: National Board.—When the National Board commenced its work in Victoria, it also had to face the school difficulties arising from the social unrest which followed the discovery of gold. In order to ascertain to what extent its activities might be extended to meet the needs of the mining areas, it sent an inspector to those localities to furnish a report. He made Forest Creek his center, and conducted investigations into the surrounding districts. In his report, he advised that national schools should be conducted in tents upon the most important goldfields. Owing to the migratory character of the population

in these places, he considered it would be useless to erect permanent schools or teachers' residences. He felt also that it would be inadvisable, owing to the extraordinary state of society at the time, to enforce the Board's regulation stipulating that one-third of the cost of each school building should be raised locally. He pointed out that, with an ever-shifting population, such a proposal would be futile. In accordance with the inspector's report, the first lot of tents was sent to Forest Creek. They comprised three for schools, and three for teachers' residences. The former were thirty feet by twenty; the latter, fourteen by twelve. With these tents was sent enough furniture to meet the immediate needs of the schools. The Government made provision for temporary school sites. Where possible, married couples were sent to the schools on the goldfields, but they were frequently in charge of masters only. By September, 1854, there were national schools at Forest Creek, Fryer's Creek, Campbell's Creek, View Point, Milkman's Flat, White Hills, Eureka, Red Hill, Creswick Creek, and Heathcote. At Canvas Town, on the south side of the Yarra from Melbourne, tent schools were also used. The following instructions were sent by the Board to a married couple appointed to one of these schools:—"The particular spot is situated about forty yards to the north-west of the tent used as a Wesleyan Chapel, and outside the fence erected by the side of the road leading to St. Kilda." Such directions bring before one's mind the vision of a multitude of tents in Canvas Town.

The Inspector on the Goldfields.—But by far the most informative account of tent schools on the goldfields was furnished to the National Board by its inspector, Mr. A. B. Orlebar, M.A. He visited the gold-mining areas about the middle of 1854, and spent five weeks there, examining schools and establishing new ones. His operations extended over the following goldfields:—View Point, Fryer's Creek, Forest Creek,

Campbell's Creek, Creswick Creek, Bakery Hill, Eureka, and Red Hills. On these diggings he endeavored to obtain accurate statistics as to the population, and particularly as to the number of children of school age. He estimated the population upon these fields at about 88,000, of whom about 13,000 were women and 6,000 were children of school age. He found that the adult population had their powers of body and mind devoted entirely to one object, to wit, the discovery and acquisition of gold. The element of chance in their work caused the diggers to become engrossed in the prospects of their lucky finds. In their eagerness to secure wealth, the duties of life, social and religious, were frequently almost forgotten. Nor was it an easy matter to recall the majority of the diggers to their obligations to their wives, children, and fellow-men. These opinions Mr. Orlebar confirmed by conversations with clergymen, storekeepers, and the diggers themselves. The following episode will show to what extent the lust for gold dominated the thoughts of some miners.

A Striking Experience.—On one occasion, Mr. Orlebar, while discharging his inspectorial duties, called at a miner's house at Daisy Hill. He found the digger with his wife and children at dinner. After introducing himself, he explained that he had heard there were many children in the neighborhood and that there was no school. The miner and his family listened attentively while Mr. Orlebar spoke of the advantages to be derived from the National School System, and invited the father to come to a meeting to be held shortly, in the evening, to consider the advisability of opening a national school. The digger seemed impressed, and stated that, though he and his wife had no time to give to the education of their children, they would willingly spend their last shilling to provide education for them. He promised to come to the appointed meeting; his wife also supported her husband's remarks. She longed, she said, to see

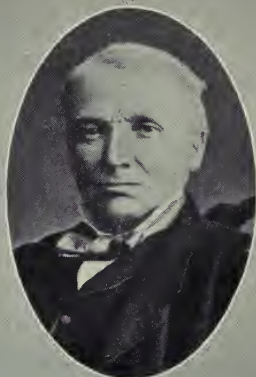
her children able to read and write. So the family gathering broke up. The miner went to his claim, the mother to her household duties, and the children to their different tasks. But, within forty-eight hours, the subject of education had vanished completely from the minds of father, mother, and children. The inspector, in due course, arrived at the place fixed upon for the meeting; but not a soul was present, though many encouraging promises had been received by him during his visits to the miners' homes only a few days previously. When, however, a meeting was called for the abolition of gold licences, the miners would crowd to it, because it directly affected the great subject of their thoughts.

Disintegrating Forces.—Other causes also were at work in bringing about the moral degeneration of the diggers. Not infrequently, family ties were loosened one by one; the marriage-bond was often looked upon as a small matter, and many lived together as man and wife without either religious or civil sanction. Cases were found of boys as young as twelve years who shared a tent and supported themselves by gold-washing. They were entirely free from parental control, and furnished a striking example of the moral laxity of society on the goldfields. Such circumstances as these narrated seriously retarded the efforts made by the National and the Denominational Board to establish schools on the goldfields.

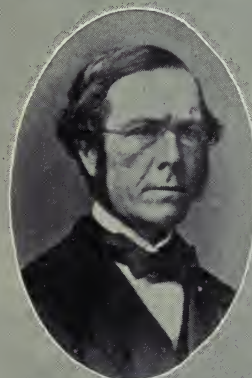
A Migratory Population.—As we have already noticed, the population of the goldfields was of a migratory character. A few acres of ground might be covered with 30,000 persons living in tents. Within a few weeks, if the mining gave out, or a new field opened elsewhere which promised a rich return, most of the population would disappear. The suddenness and frequency of these rushes were ruinous to many miners. Hence not a few of them sought for a life



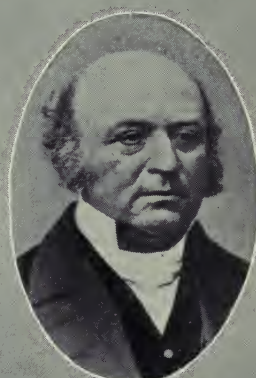
THE RIGHT HON. H.C.E. CHILDERS.



MR G.W. RUSDEN.



HIS HON. R.W. POHLMAN.



THE HON SIR JAMES PALMER.

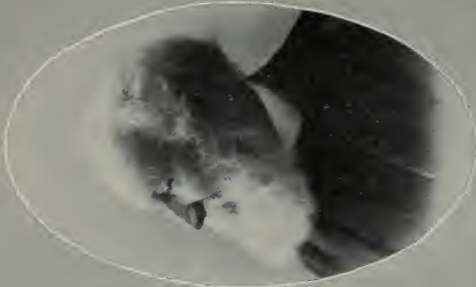
Mr. Childers was the first Inspector of Denominational Schools, Mr. Rusden of National Schools. Mr. Pohlman was Chairman of the first Denominational School Board, Sir James Palmer of the first National School Board.



MR. G. LANGHORNE.



THE REV. T. HASTIE.



MR. R. HALE BUDD.

Mr. Langhorne had charge of the Aboriginal Mission School (1836-39). The Rev. T. Hastie opened a boarding school at Buninyong (1848). Mr. R. Hale Budd was Inspector of Schools under the Denominational School Board (1854), and Inspector-General under the Board of Education (1862-72).

less unsettled. In the early period of the gold-rushes, there was not one woman to twenty men; but, by 1854, the disproportion had decreased to one in six. The diggers began gradually to settle down, and so helped to make the population less migratory in character. This made it more possible to found schools here and there. Still the greater part of the inhabitants of the auriferous areas was made up of those who followed the rushes; movable schools often provided the only possible means of carrying on the work of education amongst the miners' children.

Tent Schools Unsuitable.—Mr. Orlebar had always approved of tent schools on the goldfields prior to his visit to those localities. But what he actually saw of them in use caused him to form a rather adverse opinion as to their effectiveness. In the tent schools, the putting away of caps, slates, and books in an orderly manner fell far short of what usually took place in a conveniently arranged and well-managed school. During the windy weather, the tablets and the wall-maps suspended from the tent flapped about and were often blown down. Light in the tents was inadequate; the canvas was liable to constant injury; and, when the rain came, the place was rendered very uncomfortable. Parents objected to their children going to a tent school, where the floor was wet, the shelter imperfect, and the draughts of air passing through the tent were uncomfortable and chilly. The noise of the flapping canvas, when the wind was high, made it difficult for the teacher to conduct oral lessons. All these disadvantages convinced Mr. Orlebar that more substantial structures were needed; he felt that they would be not only more comfortable, but also that they would be cheaper in the long run. Fixed schools at certain centers were, he felt sure, absolutely necessary and practicable. He cited the cases of the slab school which had been erected at Eureka, and of another at Creswick Creek,

where the schoolhouse was composed of slabs, with a canvas roof. Finally, he recommended that permanent schools should be established at Heathcote, Sandhurst, Castlemaine, Carisbrook, Avoca, Daisy Hill, Creswick Creek, and Ballarat. These places, he considered, would command the whole of the goldfields.

Tent Residences.—The comfort of the teachers next engaged his attention. He strongly desired to see capable schoolmasters in charge of the schools on the goldfields, and realized that, unless the surroundings were made comfortable, such men would not be obtainable, or, if secured, would not be content to remain at their schools. Tent homes were not suitable for teachers; they would not do. On this point, Mr. Orlebar was most emphatic. The schoolmaster, he pointed out, required a warm and sheltered dwelling more than, perhaps, anyone else, for, during the daytime, he was engaged in work which made very severe demands upon him, particularly in the unhygienic tent schools. He considered that, if only one room were provided for a single man, that room should be a good one. A piece of ground was also necessary for the use of the teacher, so that he could have a garden and grow some vegetables. Only by using these means did he consider that the lot of the teacher on the goldfields could be made bearable, and the supply of efficient men maintained.

Teachers on the Goldfields.—The teachers with whom he came in contact on the goldfields were gathered from widely-separated training schools in distant lands. Some had been trained either in the national schools of Ireland or in the national schools of England, while others followed the British and Foreign System. One trained teacher had come from the United States of America. As men from all parts of the world were met with in the actual work of digging for gold, so the teachers represented most of the English-speaking countries of the world.

Each man followed his own training in the working of his school. They formed a mixed lot, as was only to be expected in the phenomenal state of Victoria at that time. The migratory character of the population accentuated the evils which arose from the employment of so many different methods of teaching at the various schools. Confusion in the children's work naturally followed when they were moved from school to school, as their parents changed their places of abode.

Character of the School-work.—The actual work done by the children in the national schools on the goldfields disappointed Mr. Orlebar very much. He found that the average amount of knowledge possessed by the pupils was meagre. He hesitated whether to regard this as due to the character of the children themselves, or to the circumstances connected with the social life of the goldfields. After some consideration, he came to the conclusion that it was due to the following facts:—"1, The majority of the children were those of diggers; 2, the lives of these diggers necessarily involved frequent changes of residence; and, 3, owing to the different modes of instruction given in the various schools, the children lost much in changing from one school to another."

Fees and Salaries.—Mr. Orlebar came into contact with the denominational and private schools which had been established on the goldfields. The former were four times as numerous as the national schools, owing to the fact that they could be used for divine services on the Sabbath. This was forbidden by the rules of the National Board. But all schools alike suffered from most of the difficulties already enumerated. The National Board endeavored to secure good teachers by increasing their stipends, which were supplemented by the pupils' fees, save in some cases

on the goldfields. These fees and teachers' salaries were, in 1853, as follows:—

FEES.

Towns.

For children under 8 years	6d. a week
For children above 8 and under 12 years	9d. „ „
For children above 12 years	1s. „ „

Goldfields.

For children under 8 years	1s. 0d. a week
For children above 8 and under 12 years ..	1s. 6d. „ „
For children above 12 years	2s. 0d. „ „

SALARIES.

Town or Country Teachers.

Male Teachers	£100 a year
Male Assistants	90 „ „
Female Assistants	60 „ „
Mistresses to teach needlework	40 „ „
Married Couples	£180-200 „ „

Teachers on the Goldfields.

Male Teachers	£120 a year
Male Assistants	100 „ „
Female Assistants	70 „ „
Mistresses to teach needlework	45 „ „
Married Couples	£300-350 a year (without fees)

The Passing of the Tent Schools.—In 1855, Mr. Orlebar paid an official visit to the national schools on the Bendigo and Castlemaine goldfields. During his journey, he recognized that a decided change was taking place in the habits and character of the population. Whereas, on his first visit to the goldfields, everything had seemed to be in a state of flux, he now realized that the quartz-mining was going to give rise to permanent towns in certain places. From these localities, he divined that families would gradually move farther and farther out as farming and grazing industries were developed to meet the needs of the inhabitants of the towns. His conclusions were not incorrect. Not only did the quartz-mining lead to the establishment of permanent schools in different districts, but successful and unsuccessful miners alike turned their attention to the cultivation and use of

the land. So towns and villages began to make their appearance in districts formerly classed "unsettled." In these places, the tent schools, which had been employed by both the Denominational and the National Board to place educational facilities within the reach of children living under phenomenal conditions, became things of the past. Where, at one time, the sides of tent schools flapped in the wind there are to-day some of the finest and most modern educational buildings erected by the Government of Victoria.

CHAPTER V.

SCHOOL SYSTEMS

IN THE PORT PHILLIP DISTRICT: NATIONAL AND DENOMINATIONAL.

The story is told in a former chapter how the Rev. J. Forbes, in Melbourne, and Mr. Robert Lowe, in Sydney, sought to place education upon a sounder footing. It remains to be considered how definite steps were taken to accomplish, in some measure, this purpose.

The National and the Denomination Board, Sydney.—Governor Bourke had proposed in 1836 to introduce the Irish National System* into New South Wales. His project had not prospered. After Sir Charles Fitzroy became Governor in 1846, he consented to the inauguration of that system, and further assented to the appointment of two school boards, one to superintend the affairs of the national, and the other to administer the fiscal and temporal concerns of the denominational, schools. On the 4th of January, 1848, the first General Education Board was appointed to attend to the needs of the national schools of New South Wales. On the following day, a Denominational School Board was created to undertake duties connected with church schools. A somewhat similar body was formed in Melbourne. Its first members were: Robert Williams Pohlman (Chair-

*The Irish National Education System was based upon the principle of united secular, but separate religious, instruction. No child was required to attend the latter if the parents did not desire it. When a book containing Scripture extracts was introduced, to be read in schools during the time of literary instruction, the procedure was at first considered acceptable. Later, however, it was the subject of considerable dissatisfaction.—See *A History of Education in Modern Times*, by Dr. F. P. Graves.

man), David Ogilvy, Edward Curr, Robert Smith, and Sydney Stephens. No National School Board was appointed in Melbourne until after the Port Phillip District had been separated from New South Wales. The Board at Sydney controlled all national schools throughout the colony. Bearing this in mind, we can now direct our attention to the activities of the Denominational Board in Melbourne.

Melbourne Denominational Board's Inquiry, 1848.—After its appointment, the Board applied to Mr. C. J. La Trobe for information as to the nature of their duties, and as to the character and extent of education in the schools of the province. On March 1st, 1848, La Trobe informed them that they were expected "to suggest for the consideration and approval of the Government a code of regulations for the conduct and inspection of the church schools to which aid was given from the public funds of the colony." With regard to the latter question, La Trobe wrote: "It is not in the power of the Government to give the required information. That must be obtained by the Board from the heads of the various denominations." Hence it came to pass that the Board issued two circulars, one to the heads of the churches, and the other to teachers in the denominational schools. The information solicited covered practically every aspect of school life in the Port Phillip District for the year 1847. The result of the circulars was that the clergy and teachers made a fine response to the Board's inquiries. For the sake of conciseness, nine of the main features in the answers upon which very little difference of opinion was shown are set out as follows: 1. The clergy acknowledged frankly that, while some of the teachers employed in their schools were capable, there were many who were not worth even the paltry salaries they were receiving. In the larger schools, there was a master for the boys and a mistress for the girls; in the smaller schools, the boys and girls were

under one teacher. The supervision of the teacher was generally in the hands of the resident or visiting clergyman, by whom the teacher had been appointed. In some cases, the clergyman visited the school daily; in others, his visits were at longer intervals, up to a month. For all that took place in the school, the teacher was responsible to the clergyman. He, or his deputy, examined the school and passed judgment upon the efficiency of the instruction given.

2. Generally speaking, the school-buildings belonged to the church, though, in some cases, they were rented from private individuals. For the most part, the schools were inadequate in size and lacked proper equipment. A few of the better-class schools were free from the faults enumerated. Residences for schoolmasters were by no means common; the want of this accommodation was a constant source of complaint amongst teachers.

3. The salaries received were made up of school fees and grants from the Government. A master obtained from £40 to £100 a year, and a mistress somewhat less. Where a married couple were both employed in teaching, their joint salaries averaged about £120 a year. The clergy considered that a master in charge of fifty boys was well remunerated with a residence and £100 a year.

4. The fees paid were estimated at from 3d. to 6d. per child per week for ordinary school subjects. But, where history and geography were taught, it was considered that the charge should be from 10d. to 1s. per week. There were some well-conducted and well-attended schools which charged as high as 2s. a week for each child. Instruction in these institutions was usually of an advanced character.

5. As to the minimum attendance at a State-aided school, it was generally considered that a mixed school should not have less than fifty pupils to entitle it to Government assistance; that, where boys and girls

were separated, there should be thirty pupils in each department; and that, in village schools, the number should not be less than twenty. All the clergy agreed that a training school was an important and pressing need. But they made it plain that they would oppose any attempt to deprive them of the right to appoint, control, and dismiss those employed in the church schools. A Board which would undertake to test the ability of schoolmasters and mistresses was welcomed; one aiming at more than this was not desired.

7. The monitorial system found favor with the majority of the clergy and teachers. But a note of warning was sounded, and attention was drawn to the fact that young teachers frequently left the teaching profession for a more lucrative calling after receiving their literary education.

8. The desirability of a visiting board to inspect the schools was advanced by the clergy. The teachers shrewdly suggested that only those who knew something about the actual work of teaching should have seats on such a board.

9. The clergy did not give much evidence of insight into the ordinary work of the schools. That appears from the teachers' replies to questions set out in their circulars. From these, it is evident that some of the teachers had been through training schools either in England or in Scotland. The ordinary subjects which they imparted to their pupils were arithmetic, grammar, reading, and writing. History, geography, and drawing found a place only in the better type of schools.

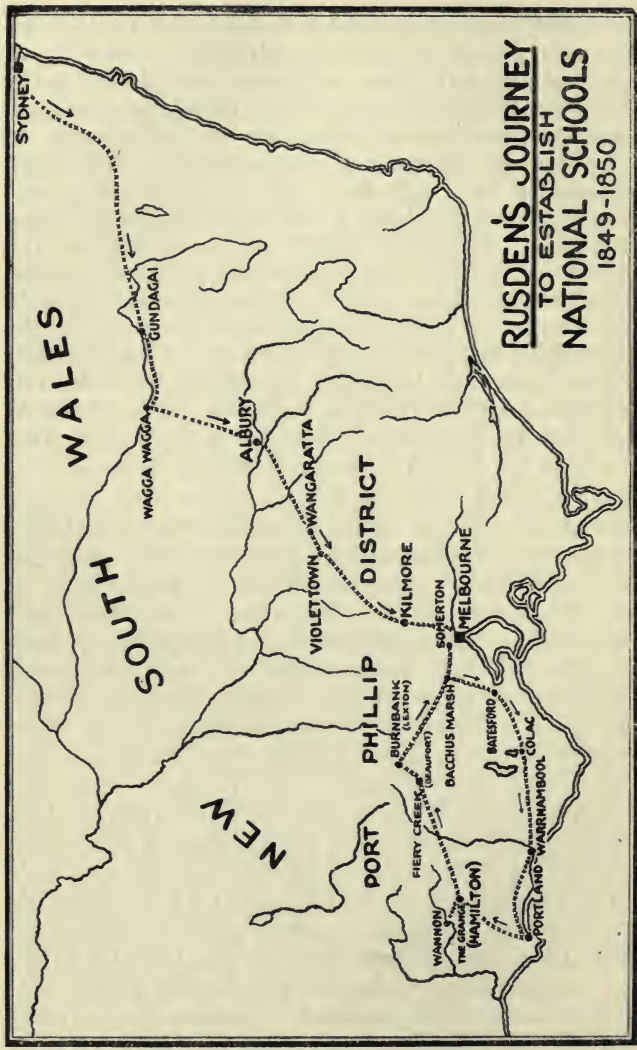
National Board's Activity.—While the Denominational School Board was busy inquiring into the state of education in Port Phillip, the National Board at Sydney was gradually opening up schools under their particular system. In their first report to the Legislature in 1849, they stressed the difficulty they had experienced in communicating on school matters with persons beyond the settled areas. To overcome this

difficulty in part, they sent out printed copies of the Board's regulations, which were displayed in various buildings connected with the Government. The National Board, however, determined to put forth a special effort to make known the advantages of establishing schools under their system to the people in the various parts of the colony. One of the two agents employed by them for this purpose was Mr. G. W. Rusden. His principal journey was undertaken to the Port Phillip District. The official records of his journey have been either lost or destroyed by fire; but a careful search by the writer through the Port Phillip newspapers for 1849 and 1850 has made it possible to trace the journey with considerable accuracy. Mr. Rusden's missionary tour extended from Sydney to the Western District, by way of Melbourne. The following is a record of that trip.

Rusden's Journey.—Mr. Rusden left Sydney on his way for the Port Phillip District in July, 1849. He was aware, before he departed, that certain places in Port Phillip, such as Boninyong and Warrnambool, had written to the Board at Sydney as to the method of establishing national schools. The communities of these and other towns therefore awaited his arrival with interest. A long letter, published in the Melbourne *Morning Herald* on the 6th of September, 1849, by a correspondent living near the Ovens River, recounted with evident pleasure that Mr. Rusden had arrived at Wangaratta after having made successful efforts at Gundagai, Wagga Wagga, Albury, and other places just outside the boundary of the settled districts. Not only at Wangaratta, but at Benalla, Violet Town, and Kilmore, schools were established. While he was in Melbourne, his purpose and mission in Port Phillip were made known in the following paragraph which appeared in *The Argus* on the 4th of October, 1849: "Attention, readers! This is the official announcement of the agent of the National School Board. Believing, as

we most sincerely do, that it is only by means of the National School System of Education that we can hope to accomplish the establishment of schools in the minor townships and thinly-populated districts, and the consequent introduction of the blessings of education to hundreds and thousands of the rising generation, we hope that Mr. Rusden's visit will secure the establishment of schools in connexion with the National School Board of which he is the accredited agent." The significance of this announcement was quite clear. The National Board expressly stated that its main objective was to cater for the educational needs of places where the denominational schools could not be easily established. On the following day, Mr. Rusden invited the residents of the surrounding districts who wished to secure aid from the National Board to communicate with himself or Mr. La Trobe. He also stated that he had no commission to obtrude offers of assistance on localities where the National System was not likely to prove of benefit to the people. Whilst in Melbourne, he established schools at Somerton, Pascoevale, and Heidelberg. From Melbourne, he proceeded to journey through the Western District, with the result that the first steps towards forming national schools took place at Bacehus Marsh, Batesford, Colac, Warrnambool, Portland, the Grange, the Wannon, Fiery Creek, and Burn Bank. The *Portland Guardian* gave prominent notice to Mr. Rusden's visit to Portland, and commented upon the fact that he had visited every place of importance between Sydney and their town, and that his work had been of a highly successful character. In a letter, dated the 27th of February, 1850, from the National Board to the Colonial Secretary, mention was made that Mr. Rusden's arrival at Sydney was daily expected. Hence, he probably returned from his long tour early in March, after an absence of between seven and eight months.

RUSDEN'S JOURNEY TO ESTABLISH NATIONAL SCHOOLS 1849-1850



PART I.—BOARD CONTROL (1835—1872) 45

National and Other Schools.—Some of the national schools established by Mr. Rusden afterwards languished. At the end of 1850, there were only seven of them in active work. Nevertheless, he laid the foundation of the national schools in the Port Phillip District; he prepared the way for the fuller development of that system under the National School Board established in Victoria in December, 1851. At the close of 1850, just seven months before separation took place, the number of schools in the Port Phillip District was—

Denominational Schools	Church of England	24
	Presbyterian	7
	Roman Catholic	13
	Wesleyan	5
	Free Presbyterian	1
		50
National Schools	In settled areas	3
	Beyond settled areas	4
		7
Private Schools	Melbourne	48
	Geelong	12
	Other parts	39
		99

La Trobe's Commission to Childers.—The imminent separation of the Port Phillip District from New South Wales, under the terms of the *Australian Colonies Government Act*, led to an important educational event. The Government in Sydney requested the Melbourne Denominational Board to control and supervise the activities of the national schools in Port Phillip until due provision was made for their oversight. Acting under instructions from the Government, Mr. H. C. E. Childers, B.A., the first inspector of denominational schools, was instructed to visit and report to the Superintendent on the state of education in Port Phillip. He discharged his task in a

most efficient manner. His report and the suggestions which he made therein for the improvement of education in the province, so soon to be called Victoria, have secured for him the honor of being our second public educationist. They were presented to the first Victorian Legislature on the 19th of November, 1851. They form equally well an account of education in the last few months of the Port Phillip District, or of the first days of this colony of Victoria. His illuminating and complete report set forth information gathered from one hundred and thirty-five schools situated in the towns and rural districts. Seventy-five of them were denominational schools; four, national schools; and the balance was for the most part private schools. His tours of inspection lasted from about the middle of January until towards the end of May, 1851.

Childers' Journey and Report.—Childers' first journey was made amongst the schools of the Western District; the next was a partial visit to the schools in Melbourne and the neighboring districts. Then the Geelong and the Kilmore areas were visited, while the last period of the investigation was spent in inspecting those schools in Melbourne which had been omitted on the previous journey. While carrying out his investigations, Mr. Childers met with almost unanimous goodwill and offers of help from local boards, clergymen, and teachers. One minister, however, refused to allow the school connected with his church to be inspected. Conscientious objection to Government inspection was the reason given for his refusal. Visits to schools and their surroundings, interviews with local committees, observations of the organization and methods employed by teachers, were included in the investigation. The classes in the schools were also tested or examined in some portion of their work. Throughout this inspection, an endeavor was made to compare the existing standard of education in Port Phillip with those of the lead-

ing countries in Europe. The number of pupils on the books of the schools visited amounted to 12,590. Leaving aside the children in the bush, for whom hardly any provision had been made, Mr. Childers computed that one-third of the children in the towns were not attending school, while, in the suburban areas, the deficiency was estimated at half the possible number of attenders. In Melbourne and Geelong, there were some schools which bore very fair comparison with those in towns of a similar size in Great Britain. In the thinly-populated parts, however, the schools, with but few exceptions, were decidedly inefficient. In the country districts, the minimum course of instruction demanded by regulation was frequently almost a dead letter. Two allies of ignorance—pride and pauperism—were noticeably absent amongst the people. Social extremes were not met with, as in older lands. Still, the migratory habits of the population and the want of sobriety on the part of many of the parents presented serious obstacles to the attainment of a good standard of education. Other causes also helped to account for the low standard of public instruction. Attendance at school was not compulsory in those days, and the high price of labor at the time made anything like an average attendance almost impossible. A lad would not come to school when he could earn ten or twelve shillings a week. Not only in the pastoral and agricultural districts, but also in the towns, schools were nearly deserted at certain seasons of the year. Another hindrance to education was the common indifference of parents to its value. Many of them were ignorant themselves, consequently irregularity and unpunctuality on the part of the children of such parents followed inevitably. Cases were met with of parents who actually forbade their children to learn anything at school. Rivalry between schools not assisted by the Government presented another obstacle to sound work. Though largely indifferent to their children's education, parents often sent the

younger members of the family to school to get them out of the way. Hence the colony swarmed with petty schools, with from ten to thirty children in each, kept by some old man who could not work, or by a laborer's wife, to whom ten or twelve shillings a week was a sufficient remuneration. The effect on legitimate teaching was most injurious, and was bitterly complained of by schoolmasters. In France or Germany at that date, every parish or township had its school, and no one could teach without a certificate from the educational authorities. The genius of our laws dispensed with any such safeguards. Rivalry between different schools also brought it about that children constantly moved from one school to another. Some children did the whole round of the schools in the locality, staying a few weeks in each and paying none.

His Opinion on Denominational Schools.—Whilst the Denominational System of education produced some efficient schools in Melbourne and Geelong, it was ill suited to the thinly-populated parts. There, religious jealousies prevented united action in securing a good schoolhouse and a capable teacher. The result was seen in paltry schools and incompetent teachers. No educated man or trained teacher would try to live in a country district on £50 a year. Some of the clergy who were supposed to supervise the schools connected with their churches either could not, or would not, carry out their duties. Others came only for the express purpose of celebrating divine service; the school became a secondary consideration. One of the best schools in Melbourne, however, was run avowedly on purely secular lines, the clergyman's duties being confined to signing the returns. At Christ Church, Geelong, there was a most efficient local committee, consisting of the Venerable the Archdeacon and others, who attended the school every Monday morning and exercised a thorough supervision. Active boards were of great

assistance to schools, for the clergy who guaranteed salaries to teachers found that, unless people were directly interested in the school, very little support was given to it.

School Buildings.—The state of the school-buildings left much to be desired. In the towns, there were some creditable buildings constructed of stone, brick, or weatherboard, but, only too frequently, the place which served the purpose of a school was unworthy of the name. Of those visited, seven had no floors, thirty-seven were not ceiled, and four had no windows. Thirteen schools had no external offices whatever; and the attention of some teachers had to be directed towards enforcing ordinary rules of decency. Only about twenty per cent. of the schools had teachers' residences provided; and but few of these were suitable buildings. In the majority of cases, very little provision had been made for the children's recreation between school hours. In the absence of proper playgrounds for the Melbourne schools, considerable numbers of children were to be seen playing about the streets between noon and two o'clock in the afternoon.

The Teachers.—Out of the one hundred and twenty teachers in the seventy-four denominational schools, only five had been trained in normal schools, and thirty-four had been previously employed in tuition work. Amongst the others, the majority had been clerks, shopkeepers, or tutors, while the minority were recruits from the ranks of the farmers and the constables. As was to be expected from their training, most of the teachers were far from competent. Several could scarcely write legibly; and many were ignorant of all but the first rules of arithmetic. Their spelling was often-times lamentable. The salaries paid to teachers varied greatly in amount, ranging from about £50 to £90 per annum. The average salary paid to the hundred and twenty denominational

teachers already referred to was, for the first quarter of 1851, at the rate of £68. 10s. 8d. per annum.

School Arrangements.—While there were separate schools for boys and girls, the greater proportion had both sexes attending the same school, though sometimes in separate classes. The fees paid by the pupils varied considerably, extremes being met with; but the average fee worked out at about fivepence per week. Considerable difficulty was experienced by schools in procuring the requisite books, supplies of which came most from Dublin and Sydney. Schools suffered also from the want of a proper equipment of desks, blackboards, and easels. Of the great improvements in desks in England, there seemed to be almost complete ignorance. Amongst all the schools visited, not a single instance of successful simultaneous class-teaching was found. One school in Collingwood, run on the British and Foreign Society's System, gave evidence of good work; another in Melbourne was noted for the capable assistant teachers employed in it. This latter school was almost a grammar school. What the nature of the discipline was in the schools visited is not definitely stated; but, from other sources, we know that the discipline of the Port Phillip schools of the forties was often very erratic. Severity alternated with great laxity, and the tone of the schools consequently suffered. A favorite pastime in school hours was to cut small chambers in the desks and fit them with glass slides. In these recesses, pupils imprisoned various kinds of insects, which they released from captivity at most inopportune moments.

Curriculum.—Amongst the subjects taught in the primary schools, reading received good attention, the books of the Irish Commissioners being used extensively. In many schools, the Bible was employed as a reading-and-spelling book. As the reading in it was not easily graded in difficulty, there was a tendency for pupils to view the sacred volume with weariness.

There were some teachers who maintained that the practice of using the Bible in this way gave the children a dislike to it. Writing seems to have received more attention than any other branch of primary education. Some of it was very neatly executed, particularly amongst the Irish children, though many of them could scarcely read the difficult words they had written. The better class of schools taught arithmetic well; but, in inferior schools, it was omitted from the program of instruction. In some instances, an extra charge was made for "ciphering." Hence many children were deprived of a study which was universally popular. There was great neglect in the teaching of geography, owing to the scarcity of proper maps, particularly those of Australia and Port Phillip. Some parents insisted that their children should not be taught geography; others stipulated with the schoolmaster not to impart anything to their children except reading, writing, and arithmetic. History and grammar were taught in comparatively few schools. One pleasant feature in connexion with the town schools was the common practice of teaching singing to the pupils. Some schools had singing masters who visited once or twice a week. Such, then, was the state of primary education when the Port Phillip District was liberated from the domination of Sydney and entered upon its new career as the colony of Victoria.

CHAPTER VI.

EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS, 1852-62.

Childers' Scheme of Education.—Soon after the separation of the Port Phillip District from New South Wales took place, Lieutenant-Governor La Trobe requested the Denominational School Board to take over, for the time being, the management of the national schools of Victoria. This was pending the appointment of a proper board for their supervision. The request was acceded to, and, between 1st October, 1851, and 9th February, 1852, the national schools of the new colony were under the administration of the Denominational Board. Shortly before this period, La Trobe asked that body to furnish him with a scheme for a general system of education in Victoria. Upon Mr. Childers devolved the task of executing this request. He recommended: 1, That a Board of Education should be formed to supervise all assisted schools and to deal with all public matters relating to education; 2, That the distinctive names 'National' and 'Denominational' should cease to be employed, and that all assisted educational institutions should be designated 'Public' Schools; 3, That one code of secular and fiscal regulations should be applicable to all public schools; 4, That the establishment of schools connected with the several religious denominations should be encouraged in the towns; 5, That the establishment of schools on the Irish National Combined System should be encouraged in rural districts containing a mixed Protestant and Roman Catholic population; 6, That the establishment of a school connected with a particular religious denomination should be allowed in a rural district where the large majority of the population belonged to that denomination; 7, That the appointment of teachers and the drawing up of regulations with regard to religious

instruction should be made by the local board; 8, That the Board of Education should, if it deemed it expedient, require that a certain number of hours should be appropriated to secular instruction uninterruptedly, and that parents should be allowed to send their children to receive such instruction only; 9, That the Board of Education should consist of members of the Executive Council, *ex officio*, and persons possessing the confidence of the religious denominations with which they were connected, and that their proceedings should be published from time to time, as were those of the Committee of the Privy Council on Education in England.

National Education Board Incorporation Act.—In November, 1851, the *Education Commission Bill*, embodying Mr. Childers' recommendations, was presented to the Legislative Council. It failed to pass. But, on the 30th of December, the *National Education Board Incorporation Act* was passed, under the terms of which a National Board was created. Its first members were H. C. E. Childers, Charles Hotson Ebdon, James F. Palmer (President), Thomas H. Power, and William Westgarth. To this body, the Denominational Board surrendered the temporary control it had exercised over the national schools. Though the Legislative Council had rejected the *Education Commission Bill*, and had passed the *National Education Board Incorporation Act*, it realized that the best interests of education would not be effected with separate boards. Hence, on the 8th of July, 1852, it appointed a select committee to inquire into and report upon the working of the existing systems of instruction for the young people of the colony. The committee received both oral and written evidence from many persons, some of whom were familiar not only with educational conditions in Victoria, but also with those in the homeland. Amongst the most striking portions of evidence were those contributed by the Very Rev. Dr. P. B. Geoghegan, Vicar-General of

the Roman Catholic Church; by the Right Rev. Dr. Charles Perry, the first Anglican Bishop of Melbourne; and by Chief Justice a'Beckett. What these were will now claim our attention.

Education Commission, 1852. (a) The Very Rev. Dr. P. B. Geoghegan.—When speaking in support of the Denominational System, the Rev. Dr. Geoghegan stated, amongst other matters: “The prime duty of the State is to provide for the good order and prosperity of the people. There is no real prosperity without good order, no good order without religion and moral principles, and these are the results of early education. For that education the State must look up to powers above itself; they are unmistakable. Nature cries out for the parental right, and conscience invokes the power which goes to the heart—the authority of religion. These powers are invested with the special command over the education of youth—their authority is derived directly from God, and is irrevocable; therefore, it is more independent and more sacred than the civil power, which, although it comes from above, has its authority to act from the people, and may be abdicated or recalled. The province of the civil power in education is not to control or impair the parental right, or the authority of religion, but to protect, assist, and foster them, as the guardians constituted by nature and revelation to form the heart and mind of youth for society and God. These views are realized by the Denominational System of education. A mixed system is the antithesis. Under color of excluding religious differences from its schools, it lays open the ground which religion ought to occupy to the operation of the civil power; so that every such school is converted into an instrument of the State, and becomes dangerous to freedom as well as to religion. The civil power, as the controller of education according to this system, can attain only to the human sciences. But, amid the discoveries and wonders

which human sciences are crowding around us, we feel that we are superior to them all, and that the want left between them and the longing of our souls is profound and unsatisfied. Religion alone can fill up the void.”

(b) *The Right Rev. C. Perry.*—Dr. Perry warmly advocated that State aid should be given to schools, but, at the same time, did not wish to see it shoulder the whole pecuniary responsibility of education. He was asked whether he thought it desirable that the funds provided by the State should, in the first place, be divided amongst the different denominations receiving aid, according to their respective numbers on the census. To this he replied: “No. The only advantage of that mode of distribution consists in the appearance of impartiality; and I object to it: first, on the ground of principle—that it recognizes different religious denominations, directly contrary to one another, as being equally deserving of support; and, secondly, on the ground of expediency—that it encourages the establishment of several rival schools where the population is not sufficient for more than one; and hence, it occasions unnecessary expense, and produces a number of small and inefficient schools.” Asked as to whether he thought that religion should form a main subject of education in schools supported by the State, he answered: “It ought to do so if the mass of the people held the same religious opinions; but, where the people are so divided in opinion as they are in this colony, the best course is, in my opinion, for the State not to intermeddle with religion at all, but only to take care that facilities for religious instruction are given in accordance with the tenets of the several parents, and to confine its exertions to the secular instruction and moral education of the children.” He strongly advocated that the National and Denominational Systems should not continue to be maintained under separate managements; that a board should be appointed; and that no clergy-

man should be given a seat on that board. Other matters which received his support were: that education should not be compulsory; that the State should support higher schools to which meritorious children could be sent from the elementary schools; and that a training establishment should be provided. In his opposition to compulsory education, he agreed with the Rev. Dr. Geoghegan, who preferred to appeal to the higher motives of parents. The Anglican bishop considered compulsion as being contrary to the British constitution. With reference to higher schools, he said: "In my opinion, we are never likely to have a complete system of national education until support is afforded to such schools."

(c) *Chief Justice a'Beckett*.—The Chief Justice replied in writing to the committee's questions as set out in a circular, and gave expression to some striking views. He considered that education was essentially a national concern; that attendance at school should be compulsory; and that the National System of education was the most suitable for Victoria. He favored an education tax on everybody; but, as the population became more settled, the establishment of local rates. He thought parents should be called upon to pay fees, but only according to their pecuniary circumstances. Upon the question of remuneration to teachers, he made a noteworthy and dignified statement, which showed how deeply he valued the worth of good teachers to the community at large. He wrote: "As to the remuneration of teachers, I am not aware of the sums usually paid to them in this colony, but I should say that £100 per annum, exclusive of board and lodging, ought to be the minimum. This sum, however, should be given only where a very subordinate or initiatory part is confided to its receiver. The principal master should not have less than £500 a year, in addition to his residence. I name this salary because I conceive no character to be so elevated, so respectable, I had almost said so sublime, as he who devotes himself with

his head and heart, imbued with the spirit of all that is best in philosophy and religion, to the task of educating the young. Neither the throne, the pulpit, the senate, nor the judicial bench can, with such danger, be unworthily filled as the post of teacher to a nation's youth. Such a man cannot be too highly paid in a country where money is so easily procured and so lavishly expended. It would be a shame and a stain to it if it did not place its highest benefactors (for amongst such I rank the schoolmaster) not only above want, but also in possession of present comfort, and the means of securing future independence."

Result of the Commission.—In the report which the committee presented to the House, they stated:—"1, That they declined to recommend the continuance of both systems of education; to wit, the Denominational and the National, in that they led to a multiplying of schools, to a number of ill-paid masters, and to rivalry and hostility consequent on the efforts of the promoters of these schools; 2, That they had good reason to believe that the mere amalgamation of the boards would not be productive of that harmony of action so essential for the effective administration of education; 3, That there should be a board of laymen, four in number, to be appointed by the Government, to be called the 'Board of Commissioners of Education,' which should administer matters connected with public instruction; 4, That all schools assisted from the public funds should be called 'public' schools; 5, That no child should be compelled to attend religious instruction if the parent objected; 6, That certain consecutive hours, not less than four, should be used in imparting secular instruction; 7, That every exertion, almost regardless of expense, should be made to procure, retain, and train up competent teachers, and to place them in their proper place in the social scale."

Steps to the "Common Schools Act, 1862."—The outcome of the committee's report was the introduction, during 1853, of the *Education Commission Bill*,

and the *General Education Bill*. The former, a private measure, made no headway; the latter passed the House by a bare majority. This caused the Government to allow it to lapse. They felt that so important a matter should command more support before becoming law. In the years intervening between 1853 and 1862, a number of educational bills were brought forward, only to be rejected. The question of arriving at a settlement of the religious instruction question was mainly responsible for this failure of educational legislation.

But the long-drawn-out controversy concerning the abolition of the Denominational and National School Boards, and the introduction of a single system of educational administration, came to an end in 1862. In May of that year, two Education Bills were brought before Parliament—one, the *Common Schools Bill*, introduced by Mr. Heales; the other, the *Primary Schools Bill*, by Mr. (afterwards Sir) John O'Shanassy. The latter bill died an early death. The former passed on 12th June, and received the Governor's assent on the 18th of the same month. This Act, which took effect from 1st September, 1862, stated, amongst other things:—1, That the two existing Education Boards should be abolished and a Board of Education established, no two members of which were to be of the same denomination; 2, That four hours' secular instruction should be given daily in State-aided schools; 3, That the Board had the power to appoint local committees; 4, That the duties of the Board were to frame regulations, and to allot moneys granted by Parliament for State-aided schools.

Training Schools; University.—Thus, after a struggle extending from 1852 to 1862, the Government of Victoria finally swept away the Denominational and the National School Board. During that time, the best interests of education were seriously retarded by the uncertainty which prevailed as to

what changes would take place in the educational systems of the colony. Both the Denominational and the National Board wished to introduce progressive measures. The latter did establish a model (or normal) school, which was opened in East Melbourne during September, 1854. Its first principal was Mr. Arthur Davitt. There the training of teachers was carried on, as well as the ordinary work of a national school. Efforts were made to secure the co-operation of the Denominational Board in the work of training teachers. These were, however, unsuccessful, owing to the inducements to join in not being considered liberal enough. Hence, the Denominational Board entrusted the responsibility of training its teachers at St. James's School to Mr. Dixon, who was appointed in February, 1859. Both boards evolved schemes for the establishment of agricultural schools; both commenced actual work in that direction. The uncertainty, however, of their tenure of existence prevented anything of real permanence from being effected. Though the Government made but little headway in settling the question of abolishing the two boards, they did good work in two other ways. In 1853, they passed an Act which provided for the foundation of the Melbourne University; in the same year, and also about two years later, they voted money amounting to over £30,000 for grammar schools connected with the Episcopalian, Presbyterian, Wesleyan, and Roman Catholic denominations.

CHAPTER VII.

TO THE EDUCATION ACT OF 1872.

Defects of Common Schools Act.—It had been hoped by the Government and by the well-wishers of education in Victoria that the abolition of the two boards in 1862 would increase the effectiveness of the State-aided schools, and would minimize that spirit of rivalry and jealousy which had formerly existed amongst them. That wish, however, was not realized by the working of the *Common Schools Act*. The very fact that the Board of Education was composed of members representing the principal churches served to keep alive the spirit of denominationalism. The prevalence of the idea that certain members on the Board exercised undue influence in its administrative work weakened public confidence in it. The Board, moreover, was not responsible to Parliament for the distribution of the large sums of money annually voted for educational purposes. In some districts, the amalgamation of certain church schools was much to be desired in order to secure more effective and more economical educational administration. But the several sections of the church looked upon their schools as feeders to their congregations. This spirit of separation prevented the desired amalgamations. Hence, there arose a feeling amongst the public that the control of education should be placed in the hands of the State, which should concern itself only with secular and compulsory instruction. The dissatisfaction which existed with regard to primary education led the Governor to appoint a Royal Commission on the 4th of September, 1866, to inquire into the state of public instruction under the *Common Schools Act*.

Commissioners' Report.—In January, 1867, the Commissioners presented their report to the Governor. In it they stated, amongst other things:—

“1. That, of 170,000 children of educable age in the elementary schools of Victoria, only 76,304 were on the rolls of the public and the private schools, the latter accounting for 11,378 of that total;

“2. That the system of public instruction established by the *Common Schools Act* did not appear to have hitherto produced any proportionate improvement in the extension of the benefits of instruction aided by the State; for, in 1862, the number of children on the rolls of schools under the Denominational and the National School Boards was 56,493 out of 121,661 within the age of instruction;

“3. That the deficiency of the means of instruction in the thinly-populated parts of the colony was acknowledged to be ‘the most crying want of the interior at this moment;’

“4. That wilful neglect of existing means of instruction was an evil of growing proportion, and productive of increasing mischief; and that, while opinion on the question of compulsory education was about equally divided, the Commissioners thought the system would be generally approved of, if the means of enforcing it could be discovered;

“5. That the question of the obligation or expediency of communicating religious instruction in the public schools, and the claims of the clergy of the different sects to direct or supervise such instruction, had contributed in this colony, as in other countries, more than all other causes combined, to disturb opinion, and to raise practical obstructions in the way of public instruction; and that, though the design of the Legislature in enacting the *Common Schools Act* was to delay dissensions and to remove these obstacles, this design had not been attended with success;

“6. That the necessities of public education, and the preponderating mass of evidence which had been

received, seemed to demand that a fundamental change should be made in the existing system ;

“7. That a law, founded upon the draft of the Education Bill presented with the Report, should be enacted to make elementary education compulsory ; to exclude sectarian teaching, but to sanction and encourage religious teaching ; to appoint a Minister of Public Instruction responsible to Parliament ; to admit teachers into the Public Service ; and to establish a training school for teachers.”

The Governor caused the report, together with the draft of a Bill embodying its recommendations, to be presented to Parliament, which agreed that a radical change in the system of education was necessary. Hence it was that, in May of the same year, Mr. George Higinbotham introduced the Education Bill proposed by the Commissioners. But the measure was short-lived owing to the question of religious, but non-sectarian, teaching which it supported. Petitions against the Bill were presented to the House, with the result that it was withdrawn. The influence, however, of the Report upon this question of compulsory education was far-reaching. Such a piece of evidence as the following, given by a clergyman before the Commissioners, was enough to make thoughtful people regard the education problem with seriousness: “In districts where there is none to instigate the parents to educate, a large number of the children remain uneducated. One Sunday, about three months ago, I visited three families accidentally, one having ten children, one six, and the other five, and not one of them could read ; the parents themselves could not read.”

There can be no doubt that public opinion in Victoria in favor of a secular and compulsory education was further strengthened by the writings and statements of prominent persons and organizations in England which favored such a system. Some of

these opinions, of which the following are fair samples, were published by the Government of Victoria. In the *Educational Times* of November, 1869, Canon Kingsley advocated in forceful language the necessity of establishing secular and compulsory education. Referring to the inadequacy of the voluntary system, he said: "The only way of making parents understand that educating their children is an infeasible duty is for them to be taxed by the State itself, and for the State to say, 'There is your money's worth in the school. We ask no more of you; but your children shall go to school, or you shall go to gaol.' " In the same year, a Trades Union Congress was held at Birmingham, when the following resolution was passed: "That this Congress believes that nothing short of a national, unsectarian, and compulsory education will satisfy the people of the United Kingdom." The press in Victoria—ever the advocate of education in the colony—took up the same matter with considerable earnestness. The majority of the public welcomed this, for they were weary of the denominational spirit which had so persistently harrassed and retarded the expansion of sound and economical education since separation from New South Wales in 1851.

The Higinbotham Bill in 1867 had received inadequate support owing to the fact that it provided for religious, but non-sectarian, teaching. When, however, on 12th September, 1872, Mr. Stephen sought for leave to bring in a Bill to amend the law relating to education, he gave the religious question no place in it. He pointed out that the Cabinet was pledged to the country to bring in a measure for secular, compulsory, and free education. The existing Board of Education, he continued, was irresponsible to Parliament. Hence, it was deemed advisable to establish a Department of Education under a Minister of Public Instruction. After prolonged discussions on the Bill, the measure finally passed

through all stages, and, on the 17th of December, 1872, received the Governor's assent.

The statute marked the beginning of a new era in the educational history of Victoria. Henceforth every child of school age in the colony became entitled to receive, at the hands of the State, that key which, rightly used, unlocks whole stores of knowledge. Had the Victorian Parliament of 1872 passed no other statute than this Education Act, that alone would suffice to make the year 1872 a memorable one in the history of our land.

T. S. Carnob

G. W. Prudden

August Spuler

James Forbes

Thomas Hatto

W. B. Bunn



DENOMINATIONAL SCHOOL (SOUTH YARRA).
AN IMPORTED BUILDING OF IRON.



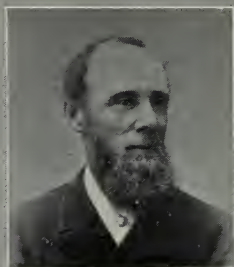
NATIONAL SCHOOL (WEST HAWTHORN), 1853



WOODEND COMMON SCHOOL.



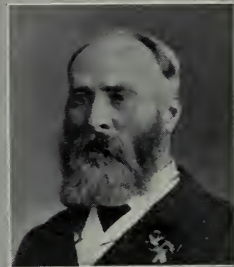
MR HENRY P. VENABLES.



MR G. WILSON BROWN.



MR JOHN MAIN.



MR T. BRODRIGG.



MR CHARLES TYNAN.



MR JAMES BAGGE.

Each rose to be Secretary and Permanent Head of the
Department.

PART II.

UNDER A MINISTER OF THE CROWN,
FIRST PERIOD (1872—1901),
A SECRETARY THE PERMANENT HEAD.

*By C. R. Long, M.A., a Senior Inspector of Schools,
Editor of "The School Paper," the "Education
Gazette," and the "Education Department's Record
of War Service."*

CHAPTER VIII.

WHAT PARLIAMENT DECREED: BEGINNING
THE WORK.

Summary of the "Education Act 1872."—The *Education Act 1872* came into being in obedience to the desire of the majority of the electors of Victoria that every child in the colony should be given the rudiments of an English education. In order to effect this, it contained three main provisions—provisions that were not to be found combined at that time in the educational law of any other part of the British Empire. It made education secular, compulsory, and free. Important and far-reaching as its results would undoubtedly be, the Act for administrative purposes was little more than an outline, power being granted to make regulations that would serve to provide the machinery for giving practical effect to its objects.

Its principal sections may be thus summarized:—

1. It repealed the Act of 1862 (usually referred to as the *Common Schools Act*), thus abolishing the Board of Education.

2. It provided, to take the place of the Board, for a Minister of Public Instruction, in whom all school properties were to be vested, and on whom the power of appointing and dismissing officers was conferred.

3. It established a Department of Education, consisting of a Secretary (the chief executive officer), an Inspector-General, inspectors, teachers, and other

officials, and stated that teachers were to be paid a fixed salary and remuneration by way of results.

4. It decreed that State schools might be established, extended, and maintained in such places as might be desirable.

5. It ordered parents to send their children to school between the ages of six and fifteen years, the attendance to amount to not fewer than sixty days in each half-year. For neglect of their duty, parents were to be liable to a fine; but the following reasons would serve as a valid excuse for non-attendance: Efficient education elsewhere; absence on account of sickness, fear of infection, or any unavoidable cause; the absence of a State school within two miles; the possession of the certificate of being educated up to the standard.

6. It provided that boards of advice should be elected, and authorized them to act as guardians of school property, to watch over the conduct of teachers, visit and report on, and enforce attendance at, the schools.

7. It declared that instruction should be free in certain prescribed subjects, allowed other subjects to be taught on the payment of small fees to be fixed by regulation, and conceded the right to any person to found scholarships or exhibitions in connexion with any State school.

8. It required education to be secular, and forbade to anyone the right to impart religious instruction during school hours (two consecutive hours before noon and two consecutive hours after noon), or for a teacher to do so in any State school-building.

9. It provided that an officer employed in the Education Department, or a teacher, should, under certain conditions, be entitled to a retiring allowance, as if a member of the public service.

Some of the Introducer's Statements.—The framer of the Bill (the Hon. James Wilberforce Stephen, Attorney-General in the Francis Ministry), in the

lengthy speech he made when introducing it, was at considerable pains to explain why the Cabinet had made the absence of Scripture teaching by teachers, freedom from the payment of school fees, compulsory attendance, and administration by a responsible Minister of the Crown vital principles of the Bill. Some of the opinions and arguments advanced by the "father" of the Act (as he has been frequently called) are worth quoting.

"It appears to me," he said, "as far as I can judge, that a large majority of the country, and of the representatives of the people in this House, including some members of the late Government, are in favor of three cardinal points, namely, secular, compulsory, and free education.

"First, then, as to secular education. I think it is a necessity in this country, and it is a settled question. . . . So far am I from thinking it desirable that the State should undertake the teaching of religion, if it could do so, and if we all belonged to one particular form of religious belief, I say, speaking from a deeply religious feeling, it is undesirable that religion should be taught by the schoolmaster. One necessary consequence of such a system is that religion is made unpleasant to the pupils. No child has ever any pleasing recollection of any so-called religion taught to him at school. A still greater evil of the system is that it satisfies the conscience of those whose duty it is to teach religion. . . .

"The next point is that of compulsory education. I do not altogether like the word, but I regard compulsory provisions as a necessity in order to secure the sending of children of certain classes to school. I regard it as a means necessary to introduce at the present time in order to teach parents, by a moderate pressure—by a moderate dose of compulsion—to do that which, when they have done it, they will find to their own advantage. I think that, in a country like this, we ought not to be content as long as any

children do not attend school. . . . It will be seen from the Bill that compulsory education is introduced in a very mild and gradual form. It is a new experiment in this country. I believe that it is altogether a new experiment as regards the English race. I hope that it will be found a successful experiment in two particulars. In the first place, I trust it will be admitted that it is not a tyrannical interference with private rights any more than a police law is; that the people generally will recognize that it is a crime to neglect the education of their children, just as much as it is a crime to neglect to feed and clothe them. In the second place, I hope that, as soon as the law is passed, it will be obeyed; so that when persons get into the habit of obeying this law, the compulsory principle, though it will continue on the statute-book, will be a dead letter, troubling no one.

“I now come to the question of free education. That is a point upon which I feel strongly. Once admit that all children, whether rich or poor, ought to be educated, and it seems to me to follow, as a matter of course, that the State must pay for the education of those children whose parents cannot afford to pay for it. That is not alms-giving, but the principle of co-operation carried out to its fullest extent. It is altogether a mistake to suppose that, when we avail ourselves of any ordinary convenience of a civilized community, paid for out of the taxes to which we all contribute, directly or indirectly, we take it as a gift. The child of the poorest parents who is sent, without paying any fees, to be educated by a master supported by the State does not receive his education in the way in which a child receives education at a charity school in England; but he gets it as one of the advantages derived from living in a free country where all co-operate in supplying the common necessities.”

Coming to the subject of the administration of the law relating to education, he remarked that the *Common Schools Act* had failed because its administration

was left in the hands of a board having no responsibility to Parliament. "The only way," said he, "we know of, and which we have adopted, of securing the control by this House over the education of the country and the expenditure for that purpose is to constitute a department which will be called the Department of Education, and which will be presided over by one of the responsible Ministers of the Crown."

He assured the teachers that provision was being made for them. They were not to be losers by the change. "The Bill," he said, "will place the teachers in the position of servants of the State. I believe that is a concession which will be greatly valued. They will be in the same position as civil servants, and will be entitled to the same retiring allowances."

"What are we going to pay these men?" he went on to ask. "We propose to pay them first by fixed salary for the teaching of the elementary subjects of reading, writing, and arithmetic, and then pay them by results; thus the children of this country, without any distinction whatever, will be entitled to a free education in the subjects of reading, writing, and arithmetic. We provide also that, in the State schools, education shall be given in the higher and other branches. (I say "other branches" because we include drill and gymnastics.) Instruction in higher branches will have to be paid for by fees, which will go to the teachers, subject to a percentage deduction, the amount of which will afterwards be distributed among the teachers according to the test of results."

The Bill Passes.—The Bill, introduced on the 2nd of September, passed through the House without any material alteration, and was assented to by the Governor (Viscount Canterbury) on the 17th of December. Provision was made for it to come into operation on the 1st of January, 1873.

The Men Who Commenced the Work.—It was on Thursday, the 2nd of January, 1873, when Mr.

Stephen, to whom had been entrusted the portfolio of Minister of Public Instruction, met the professional and clerical staffs of the old Board of Education. These pioneers in the work of State education must have felt something approaching dismay at the magnitude of the task before them: to do what the Act required to the satisfaction of people, press, and Parliament, and at the same time keep the cost (which was to be met in its entirety from the General Revenue) within a limit that could be reasonably borne.

They were to begin their work under two disadvantages—poor office accommodation and new leaders. The accommodation was unsuitable and inadequate. It consisted of a few small rooms in a building in Spring Street (then known as the Model School, now as the Melbourne High School), erected by the National Board of Education in the middle fifties to serve as Melbourne's central school and as a normal school, to which purposes the greater part of the building was devoted at the time. (It was early in 1878 when the Education Department moved to the Public Offices, which had just been built.)

The Secretary of the late Board—an administrator of long experience of education under both the National School Board and the Board of Education—Mr. Benjamin F. Kane—had died nine days before the Bill was assented to; and Mr. Richard Hale Budd, M.A. (Cantab.), who had been an inspector under the Denominational School Board and Inspector-General during the whole existence of the Board of Education, had been retired on a pension (£500 a year) on the last day of December. Both these men had been capable and zealous, and those who had worked under their direction must have felt how much they were needed now. Those who had been selected as their successors were, however, not unused to the duties that lay before them, and they lacked nothing in diligence and capacity. Mr. Henry P. Venables, B.A.

(Oxon.), inspector working in the office as Examining Inspector to read the district inspectors' reports and advise the Secretary and Inspector-General as to necessary action, was made Secretary for Public Instruction and chief administrative head under the Minister; and Mr. Gilbert Wilson Brown, M.A. (Cantab.), another inspector, a younger man than Mr. Budd, was appointed Inspector-General. A few months later, a still younger man (he had been appointed inspector under the Board of Education at the age of 22), a distinguished graduate in both Arts and Law of the Melbourne University, Mr. C. A. Topp, was brought in from the field to fill the office vacated by Mr. Venables.

What lay before the Department.—What had the Department before it calling for immediate consideration and action?

1. School-buildings would need to be enlarged, new ones built, and numerous teachers' residences provided. As an accompaniment to the provision of additional accommodation would be the call to increase the amount of furniture and equipment required.

2. Compulsory measures would have to be devised and put in operation to bring into the schools those not in attendance, and, in many cases, to cause those already on the rolls to attend more regularly. As the Act contemplated the active assistance of boards of advice in this direction, regulations would have to be drawn up for the election of these.

3. Another thing for consideration would be the supply of teachers necessary to cope with the increase in the number of school-children. The expansion of the means of training teachers (if candidates could be induced to come forward) would thus demand attention; and, with the increase in schools and teachers, the staff of inspectors would have to be strengthened.

4. The system of classifying and paying the teachers would demand immediate attention. What

system of payment would ensure contentment throughout the service, and at the same time keep the vote for education at a figure that would not alarm Parliament and set people talking about the excessive cost of carrying out the Education Act? was a question which the Department (as the Minister and his administrative officers came to be called) would have to ponder over.

In addition to these big matters, there were a score or more of minor importance requiring attention then and since. How they received it and with what results can be recorded but briefly in these pages.

CHAPTER IX.

SCHOOL ACCOMMODATION AND TEACHERS' RESIDENCES.

The Need for School-buildings.—The first deliberation of the Minister and his chief officers on that 2nd of January, 1873, might well have had reference to the measures to be taken to provide accommodation for the children that would be seeking it in a few days' time—to be more precise, on the 13th of the month, when the schools would open after the Christmas vacation of three weeks. As there were many thousands of children receiving no education, and everyone between six and fifteen years of age had to be at school for at least 60 days in every half-year, and the fees (which, under the regulations of the Board of Education, had ranged from sixpence to half a crown for each child) were no longer to be handed in on Monday mornings, it was to be anticipated that there would be a big increase in the attendance.

The Position Regarding School Accommodation.—A review of the position regarding school accommodation showed that there were 450 schools conducted in buildings which had been vested in the Board and which had become State schools under the new Act. In addition to these, there were 590 schools which were held in buildings the property of the religious denominations or of private individuals. The latter

schools were entitled to support for five years, if those who controlled them would agree to have the same course of free instruction taught in them as was prescribed for the State schools. Though it was supposed that many would do so, still the work of enlarging school-rooms and erecting or leasing buildings where they were needed had to be undertaken with vigor.

An inspector (Mr. John Main) thus sketched, in November, 1874, a realistic picture of what the building problem meant to the Department; for the position at Queenscliff was similar to that of hundreds of others throughout the colony: "When the present Act came into operation, there was, as is well known, a large increase in the numbers attending school, and I quote the first case with which I was directed to deal as a fair sample of the kind of work principally required throughout the year. The Queenscliff Common School had been carried on for years in a wooden building belonging to the Church of England. Early in January, the inhabitants called the attention of the Department to the state of matters in the district: the building was said to be unsuitable, inadequate to the numbers attending, and unsafe; and I was dispatched from Melbourne, where I was at that time engaged, to make the necessary inquiries. I found the numbers had largely increased, while several parents were keeping their children at home on account of the crowded state of the school, and because they considered the building unsafe. Having reported on the case and received further instructions, I engaged the only available hall in the borough, had proper furniture made, supply of apparatus, etc., sent from the office, and the school removed. Thereafter a site had to be chosen for the new building, and a good deal of correspondence carried on in

reference to it. The work occupied me nearly a week in all.”

The Most Pressing Need.—The most pressing need was to provide buildings where none existed. The places where it would be easily possible to gather twenty children or more were numerous, as there was in progress a rapid spread of settlement following on the *Land Act 1869*. Writing in October, 1874, the Minister (the Hon. Angus Mackay, Mr. Stephen having been raised to the Supreme Court bench) stated that 500 applications had been received for new schools, mostly from localities only lately occupied. To meet the need, the portable school was designed. In 1874, a contract was let for 75 of these make-shift buildings, each with its tiny porch and iron fireplace and chimney, stiflingly hot in summer and bitterly cold in winter, but still “our” school.

Expenditure.—One of the strongest reasons advanced for the abolition of the Board of Education was that the conditions under which school-buildings could be erected had been wasteful, whereas, under a Minister subject to Parliamentary criticism, building would be rigidly restricted to the actual requirements of each school district. There would thus be a considerable saving. The saving was not in evidence; school accommodation was going to cost a great deal of money. But Parliament was not niggardly. In the first session after its passing of the Act, it voted £153,000 for buildings.

The Department certainly was able to point to some set-off to the increase in expenditure; for, in its early reports, it announced that, owing to their proximity to other schools, many State and capitation schools had been closed. By the end of June, there were 43 of the former and 33 of the latter so treated.

The Architect's Branch.—An Architect's Branch of the Department, the duty of which would be to construct and repair schools, was a necessity. Mr. H. R. Bastow was appointed to the charge of it in March, 1873. In regard to the internal arrangement of the buildings, plans approved in Europe and America were consulted, and competitive designs for school-buildings were, in 1873, invited from the architects of the colony. The designs remained the property of the Government for further use; but by far the greater number of the schools was built from plans prepared wholly by the officers of the Architect's Branch. In the light of present-day knowledge concerning school architecture, it must be confessed that, among the architects engaged in planning school-buildings in the seventies, there was no genius, or, if there was, he did not get the opportunity of showing his ability. The long, narrow room with the windows behind the pupils, the faulty means of ventilation, and the inadequate provision for warming were all in evidence. Hundreds of thousands of pounds have been spent during the present century in remodelling the buildings built in the seventies, eighties, and nineties in order to get rid to some extent of their defects. Towards the end of the seventies, the impression gained currency that the architectural work of the Department could be performed more expeditiously and economically by the Public Works Department. When, in 1881, a Royal Commission "to enquire into and report upon the administration, organization, and general conditions of the existing system of public instruction" was appointed (with Mr. J. Warrington Rogers as chairman), that matter was the first one concerning which a report was submitted. Its recommendation that the Architect's Branch should be merged into the Public Works Department was carried out in 1883.

Teachers' Residences.—In October, 1873, it was announced that the Government was pushing on with

the erection and enlargement of schools, but it would be impossible, in all instances, to supply teachers with residences. We may suppose that it was the desire to do this and, at the same time, to keep down expenditure that led to the adoption of plans for attaching the residence to the school-room. By doing so, there has been caused an amount of annoyance, inconvenience, and mental suffering beyond calculation to the wives and families of teachers. The teacher of a school with a residence had, moreover, to pay rent for it and to occupy it himself or put in an approved tenant. When the "residence" consisted, as it often did, of two small skillion-rooms attached to the school-room and the rent taken off his salary each month amounted to six or ten shillings, it was no wonder that the teacher had a grievance. In 1889, more sympathetic counsels prevailed. In that year, it was announced that, for the future, residences would be detached from school-rooms. Later, the teacher was exempted from the necessity of placing a tenant in his unused residence. The inability of the Department to meet the needs of the teachers in the matter of residences was put thus in the middle eighties:

"In giving teachers their quarters they've a curious rule—

They ought to make other arrangements;

Not the size of his family, but the size of his school

Seems the base of their clever arrangements."

With the circling years, other arrangements have been made, but the ideal is still to be realized in some cases.

School Furniture and Requisites.—Closely associated with the provision of school accommodation was the supply of furniture and requisites. The Board of Education had its book depot; but, early in 1884, arrangements were made with Mr. George Robertson, the leading Melbourne wholesale bookseller, for the supply to the schools of all books and stationery that might be required for the purpose of the Depart-

ment, the latter exercising control over the issue as hitherto, and arranging that the parcels should be forwarded to teachers carriage free. Later, tenders were called for the right to supply what was needed.

The Policy Regarding Free Stock.—Many felt that, if education were to be really free, the pupils' books and requisites should be provided without cost to the parents. The Departmental officers seemed at first to be inclined to take that view, and, among the early communications to boards of advice, there was one to the effect that books, slates, and pencils would be free, but that they must not be taken out of the school. These articles were evidently used by many of the children, for the cost to the Department for the year ended June, 1878, was over £7,000. An inspector thus puts the position as he found it at this period: "Several teachers in this district encourage their pupils to buy for themselves what books and copy-books they require. The practice should be extended and imposed by authority in all schools. Some years ago, I ventured to express an opinion in one of my general reports that the system of gratuitously supplying school-books and everything they required was not only quite unnecessary, but had a bad effect upon them." The financial straits of the Government in the late seventies made economy imperative. The years 1879-80 showed a decrease in expenditure, and the opportunity was taken, in the report for 1879-80, to state the policy of the Department, a policy that has been consistently maintained. "The decrease in expenditure would seem to point to the gratifying fact that, though the Department, while taking reasonable precautions to ensure the proper using and preservation of school requisites, has placed the granting of them (except in the case of *Royal Readers*) under very moderate restrictions, parents show a general and growing readiness to purchase books, etc., for their children. That this result should have been achieved, while cases in which com-

plaint is made of the withholding from children of the free stock are extremely rare, speaks favorably for the good sense and discretion with which teachers generally have interpreted and given effect to the wishes of the Department with respect to the use of free requisites." The conditions under which teachers might sell books to their pupils offered little encouragement to do so.

The Pupils' Desks.—The desks supplied during the period were of a type that showed little consideration for the bodily development of the children. They were long and encouraged the crowding together of pupils, so that many more occupied a room than should have done so; and the seats without backs were, undoubtedly, productive of malformation of parts of the body. Dr. Pearson, in the late eighties, would have introduced dual desks, had the exchequer permitted it.

Planting of School Grounds.—Though much occupied in providing for the immediate needs of the children, still the Department found time and a little money to continue the good work commenced by the Board of improving and beautifying the school environment by planting trees. During the season 1876, about 80 grounds were planted at an average cost of £5 for each ground. The trees were, for the most part, obtained from the Mt. Macedon Nursery, and those generally selected were pines, blue gums, cypresses, white mulberries, and oaks. Departmental aid, beyond paying for the carriage of trees from the nursery to the schools, ceased after a few years, but some teachers and board-of-advice members, possessed of foresight and zeal for community service, carried it on. There were inspectors who, at their visits to schools, never failed to encourage teachers in the work; and when, in the middle nineties, *The School Paper* began to be issued, it became a medium of great value for exhortation and advice in the matter of tree-planting as well as in other things. The instruction to hold an Arbor Day and a special num-

ber of *The School Paper* had yet to wait a few years. The first Arbor Day, embracing the whole of Victoria, but held on different dates to suit the climatic conditions, was in 1904, the boards of advice and the Australian Natives' Association taking an active interest in it.

Progress.—So vigorously had the work of building been carried out that the Department, by the end of June, 1874, had either spent or was committed to spend, no less an amount than £358,724, and that at a time when the colony's population was only about 764,000. But the adequate provision for the needs of the community was not a piece of work that could be disposed of and put aside. To increase and improve school accommodation in some locality or other is always necessary. The amount spent on school-buildings and teachers' residences from 1873 to the end of June, 1901, was about £2,292,000. There were of the former 1,935 (providing accommodation for 199,215 children), and, of the latter, 1,334.

CHAPTER X.

SCHOOL ATTENDANCE.

The School Age.—The object of the Act of 1872 was to bring every child in the colony under instruction. The school age was fixed at from six to fifteen years; but, as the practice of enrolling children of three had existed for many years, it was allowed to continue.

The Result of the Law.—Under the new conditions, the number of individual pupils at school certainly increased considerably—from 135,962 in 1872 to 207,862 in 1873. There were, however, many children not in attendance. For the purpose of making gain by the labor of their offspring or from indifference to the value of education, some parents did not comply with the requirements of the attendance section of the Act.

Compulsion.—During the year 1873, no attempt was made to enforce the compulsory provisions. The Department had no funds with which to pay for the preparation of the necessary lists of the children of school age in the colony with the addresses of their parents, nor with which to prosecute those parents whose addresses had been recorded at the schools and who had not sent their children the required number of days (60 in each half-year). The boards of advice (elected about the middle of 1873) were told, however, that they might act in the matter through the police or through agents appointed by themselves, but that they should not risk a failure. Having allowed a fair period of grace, the Department decided to show that compulsion was to be made a reality. During the year 1874-5 (the financial year

beginning on the 1st of July, 1874, and ending on the 30th of June, 1875), there were 1,078 prosecutions. The fines to be inflicted on convictions were stated in the Act—five shillings for the first offence to twenty for each succeeding offence, or, in default, imprisonment for a term not exceeding seven days.

The Schools for All.—From the numerous references to the subject in the early years of the period under consideration (1872 to 1901), it is clear that the attendance of two classes of children in particular—those who had been in attendance at private schools in 1872 and the neglected or “gutter” children—was a matter of concern to many people. It was felt that the State schools should not draw pupils from the private schools, and that the neglected children should be educated. It was not long before it became a matter of common belief that private schools were suffering loss, and that the neglected children were not in the schools. The Department made explanations to show the loss from private schools was exaggerated, and it gave reasons why it had not yet been able to solve, to the satisfaction of everybody, the problem of securing the attendance of the children of neglectful parents. Some of the reasons were that there existed a manifest disinclination on the part of the honorary magistrates to inflict penalties upon parents—even upon those who habitually neglected to send their children to school; and that the provisions of the Act regarding the registration of school children (the compilation of rolls for the school districts) were inadequate. There was also another aspect of the matter. People in good circumstances (and such people were availing themselves freely of the education given in the State schools) did not like the idea of the “gutter” children mixing with theirs, and teachers were believed to be sympathetic. The Minister was not so; he had his duty to perform. He stated in his Annual Report that the Department recognized no social distinctions; and head teachers

were advised by circular that only immoral conduct or language on the part of a scholar would justify them in excluding the offender from school; and, when the Secretary for Public Instruction (Mr. G. Wilson Brown) gave evidence before a Royal Commission in 1882, he stated that "it had never been brought under his notice that teachers had made any difference with regard to the poorer and the better classes." In an exceptional locality—a lane off Little Bourke-street, Melbourne, a school was established and specially staffed and organized in order to secure the attendance of children who, without this special provision, would be growing up without education.

Boards of Advice and Truant Officers.—The Act provided that boards of advice should carry out the duty of enforcing the compulsory section, the idea being to give people an interest in their school (there had been a committee for each school under the Board) and to utilize the knowledge of the conditions of parents who might become defaulters. This arrangement was soon found to be unsatisfactory; and, in the *Education Act Amendment Act 1876*, power was given to appoint truant officers. These officers were stationed in various centers of population, and, by calling parents to the schools to account for the unsatisfactory attendance of their children, and by instituting prosecutions when the circumstances warranted such, many children of careless and selfish parents received an education they would otherwise have missed.

Alterations in the Requirements for Attendance.—In 1879, it was seen that the main object of the Act would not be attained unless the requirement of the Act of 1876 for a minimum number of attendances (30 days in a quarter) was abolished and regular attendance required. Yet many years had to pass before this reform was effected. It found a place in the Act of 1910. There were stages between. In 1889, the

minimum for a quarter was made 40 days; in 1901, 75 per cent. of the half-days the school was open; in 1905, four times in each week in which school was open 6 times, 6 times in which it was open 8 times, and 8 times in which it was open 10 times.

Exemption from Attendance.—The Act of 1872 enumerated the circumstances that would justify non-attendance. (See Chapter VIII.). Slight modifications have since been made in the excuses, the most important, perhaps, being that a child aged eleven years or more is called upon to travel, if need be, three miles to school. The Legislature thought it wise, in 1901, to give to the Minister of Public Instruction the power to exempt from attendance, it having in mind, no doubt, certain exceptional cases, for example, where the labor of a child might be a real necessity in a home.

The Age of Enrolment.—The enrolment of children who had reached the age of three often gave occasion for the remark that the Education Department had added to its functions that of providing nurseries; and, in 1882, the question of determining when a child should be enrolled was committed to a conference of inspectors for determination. There was a considerable difference of opinion on the point; but the conference at last passed a resolution to the effect that no child under four and a half years should be enrolled. But the practice was not disturbed, as it would have caused a serious reduction in the incomes of teachers. There came a time, however, when there was less consideration for the pockets of teachers—the beginning of the “cut-to-the-bone” retrenchment policy—and, on the 1st of August, 1892, an Order in Council raising the minimum age of children to be placed on the roll from three to four and a half years was issued. About a year later, another Cabinet decision raised the age to six; but no children below six years of age in attendance were excluded,

except in cases where the accommodation was insufficient. Reduction to four and a half years came into force again a few years later.

The School Age Altered.—The privilege of free instruction to 15 years was, strangely enough, taken away at the instigation of a Minister noteworthy in Victorian history for his scholarship and knowledge of educational systems—the Hon. Charles H. Pearson, M.A., LL.D. (St. Andrew's). In 1889, when introducing a Bill "to further amend the law relating to education," which contained provisions for raising the compulsory minimum attendance to 40 days in a quarter as well as the reduction of the maximum age for free instruction to children not over 13 years, he urged as a reason that, when they reached the age of 14 or 15, their attendance became irregular. "If we increase," said he, "the number of days of compulsory attendance, the children will, in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred, be able to pass the standard of education before they are 13." That was true; but the standard was so low that one would hardly have expected this learned Minister to be an advocate for children to leave school when they had received it, or to leave school at 13 years—the age when a glimmering of the true import of education comes for the first time to many children. It is only fair to state, however, that Dr. Pearson had the support of the Royal Commission of 1881-84 in what he was proposing to do, that he had provided scholarships with a liberal hand, and looked forward to the day of State high schools. The maximum age was raised again to 14 by the Act of 1910.

Census of Children.—The *Education Act Amendment Act 1876* included a provision for the taking of a census of children every two years. A form was prescribed in which each parent in the State should

return the names and ages of all children in his house between the ages of 3 and 15 years. For failure to supply the information required, or for falsifying a return, a fine of £5 might be imposed. A roll of the children of school age was to be compiled from the returns. In 1877, the first effort was made to take a census under this provision. It was a failure. Tenders were called for the carrying out of the work, but the response was slow, and the operations were extended over a very long period and could not be completed in a satisfactory manner. Only some five-sixths of the children known to be in the colony were returned. Later attempts were rather more successful, but nothing of the kind has been carried out for many years past. As the law now stands, a census may be taken at any time in any district or any portion of a district at the will of the Minister.

Night Schools.—The Minister found it incumbent on him to open free night schools. Payment was made if an average of 10 children over 12 years of age could be maintained. Numerous schools came into existence, but few gave satisfaction to the inspectors. When, late in the seventies, the requirement was made that the average attendance should not be less than 30, it closed many of the schools; but the number of children on the rolls in 1880 was 12,869. Attendance did not exempt a child from attending day school. As the years went by, the need for such schools decreased, and, on the 30th of June, 1901, there were only 8 of them.

Progress.—A desire for education on the part of the many and a fear of punishment on the part of a few have brought it about that, when fees had to be paid and there was no compulsion, each pupil was present, on the average, 58 days out of each 100 days the school was open; in 1900, each child attended 67 days out of 100 school days.

Another interesting comparison may be made. The population of Victoria in 1872 was 740,000; in 1901, it had become 1,192,000. The average attendance at the common schools in December, 1872, out of a gross enrolment of 135,962, was 68,436; and, in 1901, out of a gross enrolment of 254,539, was 150,271. Thus, while the number of children enrolled increased since 1872 by nearly 91 per cent., the average attendance increased in a still greater ratio, namely, by 119 per cent.

CHAPTER XI.

TEACHERS: PROFESSIONAL QUALIFICATIONS.

Educational Classification in 1873.—After the passing of the Act in 1872, the educational classification divided teachers into three great classes—those who had no certificates of literary and teaching qualifications, the licensed, and the certificated; while the certificated might be divided variously, as some who had only passed the examination, while others had passed in Honors.

The Licensed Teacher.—The need for a well-qualified body of teachers was fully realized by the Minister and his officers. Among the first regulations issued was one to the following effect: "No person shall be employed as a head teacher or assistant teacher in a State school unless such person shall hold a Certificate of Competency or a special certificate issued by the Board of Education, or shall, upon an inspector's recommendation, have obtained from the Minister temporary permission to act." Power was taken to compel uncertificated teachers to present themselves for examination. A few months later came the announcement that the Licence to Teach gave the privilege of teaching in State schools only as an assistant, or as head teacher where no assistant was employed, while the Certificate of Competency qualified the holder to teach in any State school. The Minister made the statement in 1876 that no teachers without the prescribed literary qualifications held office in a school. This clearly needed some explanation; for, two years later, a circular letter was sent to all unclassified teachers informing them that "unless they succeeded in obtaining the lowest qualifica-

tion recognized by the Department, the Licence to Teach, at the examination to be held that year, their services would be dispensed with''; and there were, at the time, several hundred unclassified persons acting as teachers—chiefly relics of the old system when the local committees made the appointments. In 1879, those who had not passed the examination received a "blue" letter signed "G. Wilson Brown" (Mr. Brown had been appointed Secretary for Public Instruction in March, 1878, in succession to Mr. Venables who had been "blackwednesdayed" and not re-appointed) to the following effect: "I am directed by the Honorable the Minister of Public Instruction to give you one month's notice from this date that, in consequence of your having failed to pass the examination for a Licence to Teach in December last, your services, as a teacher under this Department, must be dispensed with, and you must therefore be prepared after the instant to give up your position to your successor on his arrival." To alleviate the hardship entailed on those whose services had been dispensed with, the Legislature granted to each a pecuniary compensation proportioned to the length of his service. In January, 1880, there were 2,468 head teachers and assistants, not one of whom was unclassified.

Inducements to Qualify.—As the basis of education was made broader, inducements were held out to stimulate teachers to add to their literary qualifications.

Drill, Gymnastics, Singing, Drawing, Elocution, and Science.—Drill and gymnastics, in both of which instruction had been given in the schools under the Board of Education and paid for by a bonus to those holding the prescribed qualifications, were retained in the schedule of subjects for free instruction, and the bonus continued to be given. Singing and draw-

ing were not included in the list of free subjects. They had been taught under the Board by visiting teachers and by members of the staff (if qualified), the pupils paying a penny a week for the instruction in each subject, and the Board supplementing the amounts received by the teachers. Under the Department, the work went on for a time as before. Regulations issued in 1873 prescribed the details for the certificates in drawing and singing, and a good many teachers each year sat for the examination. Classes for drill and gymnastics were established, and many men obtained certificates of proficiency. In 1876, courses of lectures in elocution as connected with the art of reading were instituted in Melbourne and, later, in the provincial towns under Messrs. George Lupton and T. P. Hill. In 1879, the Minister expressed the wish that teachers should qualify themselves to instruct their pupils in at least one branch of science. Physiology, botany, geology and mineralogy, magnetism and electricity, acoustics light and heat, mechanics and hydrostatics, and chemistry were listed as subjects from which to choose; and, in 1891, agriculture was added.

Literary Qualifications under the "Public Service Act 1883."—The *Public Service Act 1883* made prominent the need for literary qualifications as a means of promotion in the teaching service. A Licence to Teach rendered the holder eligible only for the lowest class school—the fifth; for the fourth class, the Certificate of Competency was required; for the third, the Trained Teacher's Certificate, or the Certificate of Competency and matriculation or two sciences; for the second, Second Honors or a University degree; and, for the first, First Honors or a degree. Though Parliament allowed exemption to those who had many years of service behind them, still such requirements gave a great impetus to the younger teachers to study—particularly to the men who saw before them teaching as their life's work.

Well-qualified Teachers for Small Schools.—The *Public Service Act* contained another provision of prime importance. It secured for the smallest schools teachers well qualified for their profession by training, experience, and literary attainments—a condition of things of which Victorians have been and are justly proud. The provision was to the effect that no applicant for employment could be appointed to any position other than that of junior assistant so long as there was a junior assistant to take it. It followed, then, that, before being appointed to the sole charge of a school, a young teacher, in addition to having served as a pupil teacher, and, sometimes, to having passed through the Training Institution, would, as a rule, have gained a further acquaintance with his work as assistant under an experienced head teacher.

Kindergarten, Cookery, and Needlework.—The turn of the women came in a more special way during a period that is marked by great activity in our educational history—the late eighties—when Dr. C. H. Pearson was Minister, Mr. G. Wilson Brown Secretary and permanent head, Mr. John Main Inspector-General, and Mr. T. Brodribb, M.A., Assistant Inspector-General. Lectures by Mrs. Goulden (who had received her training in England) in the kindergarten system were given in Melbourne and other towns in 1887; and a creditable display was made at the Centennial Exhibition in the following year. By the middle of 1891, teachers to the number of 120 had been pronounced efficient in the work, and had introduced it into their infant-rooms. One of Mrs. Goulden's pupils, Miss C. M. Nicol, was able to produce an illuminating book, entitled "Practical Hints on the Kindergarten System." Parallel with the training of the teachers of the little ones in kindergarten went some instruction in cookery to those whose care was the senior girls. Instruction in the no less important subject of needlework was brought, during the same period, under review by members of the Mel-

bourne Institute for the Advancement of Plain Needlework, who took up the role of critics, placed the "mere man" inspector of needlework in a back seat, and caused the teachers, if not to teach the subject better, at any rate to talk more about methods of teaching it.

A Lowering of Qualifications for Certain Positions Countenanced.—The ideal of the Department to provide for the education of every child in the country, with the limitation of a purse that is not exhaustless, caused, in 1889, a lowering in the average standard of acquirement among its teachers; for, in that year, was begun the establishment of very small schools (an attendance of eight children, afterwards raised to ten in the retrenchment period, being deemed sufficient) with an unclassified teacher in charge. An applicant for such a position had, before appointment, to give evidence of a certain educational qualification (which was not high), and to pass an easy test in the art of teaching. Many a one, however, who began as "unclassified" in a remote bush school earned distinction in later years.

British Determination Exemplified.—Following at no long interval on the establishment of temporary unclassified schools came widespread and acute financial depression. The Government had to economize at any sacrifice. The retrenchment legislation of 1893 and later caused not only reduced incomes but a block in promotion; and teachers saw nothing ahead to induce them to try to add another to their certificates, or to make a special study of a subject in order to be able to teach it better. In spite of the depressing outlook, to the everlasting credit of many of the men and women of that day—among whom should be specially mentioned Messrs. J. T. Raw, Hugh Young, J. Rattray, W. J. Lewis, G. H. Carter, W. B. Attwood, R. V. Faravoni, and other office-bearers of the various teachers' associa-

tions, such as the Teachers' Union of Victoria, the Melbourne Head Teachers' Association, and the Male Assistant Teachers' Association—their zeal for the study of educational needs, school organization, and teaching methods suddenly blazed up. In the middle nineties, there began a series of teachers' congresses (the first of which was held on a small scale in Ballarat in 1894) that did much to raise the status of the profession. Professional knowledge was sought in the belief that it was a good thing to possess, not that it might lead to promotion.

The Teaching of Cookery, Kindergarten, and Woodwork Established on a Firm Foundation.—With returning prosperity, the Minister, Mr. (now Sir) Alexander Peacock, decided to revive the cookery classes, to again develop the kindergarten work, and to give some training in manual arts to the higher classes. In 1899, Mrs. A. Fawcett Story, a lady who had been highly successful in training teachers in New South Wales to give instruction in cookery, was engaged to undertake the work in Victoria. Under her skilful direction, a considerable number of young women, who were already qualified as teachers of the program subjects, were able to gain a certificate that enabled them to take charge of a cookery center. Under Miss E. Hooper, who arrived under engagement from England in April, 1900, teachers were able to qualify in the kindergarten system; and, under Mr. John Byatt, who came a month later from England also, in paperwork, cardboard modelling, and sloyd woodwork.

The First Summer School.—To the means provided for aiding teachers to add to their professional qualifications, mention must be made of the summer school—a periodical gathering of teachers, which owes its name to its being usually held at the midsummer vacation, to hear short courses of lectures, to exchange ideas, and to participate in the pleasures of association. The first of the many such schools held in Vic-

toria took place in January, 1901, at the Training College. The principal (Mr. Frank Tate, M.A.) had the help of a staff that included nearly all the college lecturers. With such guidance, the 120 teachers who had been selected from 600 applicants spent a profitable and inspiring fortnight. The course of work included lectures on the principles of education by Mr. Tate, and on drawing by Mr. P. M. Carew-Smyth, A.R.C.A. (Lond.); and instruction in domestic economy by Mrs. A. Fawcett Story, kindergarten occupations by Miss E. Hooper, paper-work by Mr. J. Byatt, experimental science by Mr. J. T. Saxton, M.A., and drawing by Miss Baskerville, and Messrs. Sommers, Radcliffe, and Mylrea.

The Training Institution.—The fact that the first summer school was held within the walls of the Training College at the beginning of 1901 is an indication of the part played by that institution in the evolution of Victoria's system of education. Its history could be written so as to show the ebb and flow of educational activity as a barometer does the variations in atmospheric pressure. Though teachers may obtain certificates guaranteeing their knowledge of this subject and that, and by practice upon their pupils acquire skill in imparting the information, yet the most effective means of producing a properly qualified teaching service is to put every man and woman who feels the call to teach through a systematized course of literary and scientific knowledge and of the theory and practice of teaching at as early a stage as possible in their career.

Stages in Its History.—It was fortunate for the Education Department that the Board of Education had realized that its method of fitting teachers for their work was inadequate, and had established a Training Institution in 1870. Its operations were carried on in a portion of the Melbourne Central School, which it shared with the officers and clerks

of the Education Office, and the school presided over by Mr. Patrick Whyte, M.A.

At the head of the institution was Mr. Stephen C. Dixon—a teacher exceptionally well versed in school organization and teaching method—who had been engaged in the work of training teachers in Victoria, though with inadequate means, from the middle fifties. He was advanced in years, and it was decided that his successor should be the best man obtainable in the Old Country. The choice fell upon Mr. Frederick John Gladman, B.A., B.Sc., a gentleman of exceptional ability and industry, and of much experience as a teacher and a trainer of teachers. He entered upon his duties in July, 1877, and, though never in robust health, brought such an amount of knowledge and zeal to the carrying of them out that he exerted a powerful influence for good upon education, both during the time he filled the position of Superintendent of the Training Institution, and for generations after his death in November, 1884. The reports he contributed to the Minister's Annual Report of the Department are a storehouse of wise criticism and direction, and will be treasured as long as there remains a teacher who was privileged to have been a "Gladman trainee." He is kept in perpetual memory as, year by year, the trainees strive as to who shall carry off the Gladman Prize—to the founding of which liberal contributions were made after his death. The course of study formulated by Mr. Gladman was liberal, and laid a foundation upon which any educational structure might be built. When a student came into the Training College, after having spent a year in an associated school and passed an examination almost equivalent to that for a Certificate of Competency, the following list of subjects was placed before him:—1, School management; 2 (a), English language and literature; (b), history of England and Australia; 3 (a), geometry; (b), algebra; 4, science—(a), elementary physics; (b), chemistry;

(c), physiology; (d), botany; 5 (a), Latin; (b), French. In order to obtain the Trained Teacher's Certificate, he was required to pass a satisfactory examination in school management, in at least one subject in each of the groups 2, 3, and 5, and in one branch of science. Special certificates were also to be obtained for proficiency in vocal music, drawing, military drill, and gymnastics.

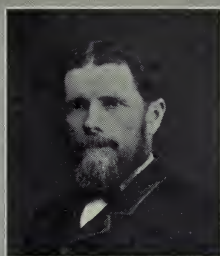
Mr. C. A. Topp was raised from the rank of Senior Inspector to be the successor of Mr. Gladman. When he resigned in 1890, Mr. Robert Craig, M.A., LL.B., like Mr. Topp distinguished for his great success in Arts and Law at the University, was appointed in his stead. He had been an inspector since 1873, and had risen to the chair of Assistant Inspector-General. Messrs. Topp and Craig found no occasion to vary materially the procedure established by Mr. Gladman.

It was a great day when, in September, 1889, the work of training began to be carried out in a building erected for the purpose in the University Grounds. It brought the Training College near the University in position, and seemed to hold out a promise (since realized) that at least the worthiest of the trainees would proceed to its lecture halls and laboratories.

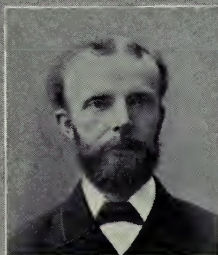
At the end of 1893, as a retrenchment measure, the Training Institution was abolished. Some of its officers—among them Mr. Craig, Mr. T. Hurly the Vice-Principal of the College, Miss Trickett the teacher of drawing, and Mr. W. R. Furlong the teacher of music—were superannuated. Employment was found for the two lecturers, Messrs. Frank Tate, M.A., and C. R. Long, M.A., in the teaching and training of pupil teachers. In Melbourne, the classes were under Mr. Tate's direction. In Ballarat, Bendigo, and Geelong, under Mr. Long's till Mr. Tate's appointment to the inspectorial staff a year or so later, when Mr. Long took charge of the Melbourne classes.



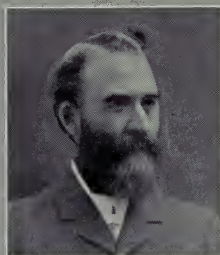
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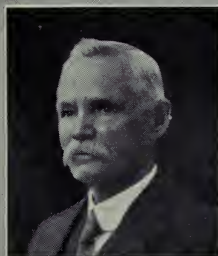
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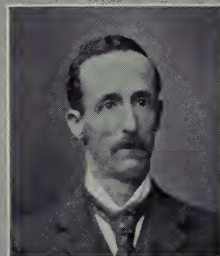
MR S. J. SWINDLEY.



MR WM HAMILTON.



MR W. F. GATES



MR T. W. BOTHROYD.

ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICERS OF THE PAST:

Messrs. Gilchrist and Stewart, inspector-generals; Messrs. Swindley and Hamilton, chief inspectors; and Messrs. Gates and Bothroyd, assistant chief inspectors.



MR S.C.DIXON



MR F.J.GLADMAN.



MR C.A.TOPP.



MR R.CRAIG.

Principals of the Training College (1870-93).

The Training College.—The college, after having remained closed for seven years, was re-opened in February, 1901, under excellent auspices, with Mr. Frank Tate as Principal, and Mr. John C. Rowe, B.A., and Mr. John T. Saxton, M.A., as lecturers. The following also were visiting teachers: Mr. A. E. Davies (working under the personal supervision of the Art Inspector, Mr. P. M. Carew-Smyth) for drawing; Mr. August Siede for singing; Mr. B. J. Jack for gymnastics; Miss H. Ingram for needlework; Mr. George Lupton for elocution; Mr. H. T. Tisdall for botany; Miss Hooper for kindergarten; Mrs. A. Fawcett Story for domestic arts; and Mr. John Byatt for manual training. From that time onward, a steady expansion of the all-important work of training teachers has taken place; and, owing mainly to that, a continuous rise in the literary and professional qualifications of teachers generally has been the result.

CHAPTER XII.

STATUS OF TEACHERS.

The First Classification.—In the early days of 1873, there must have been a great deal of conjecture among teachers as to the method that would be adopted to classify them for the purposes of payment and promotion. Definite classification with a fixed rule of promotion was the great boon promised to them when the Bill was being debated. In the first regulation issued by the Minister, the schools were arranged in accordance with the number of children in average attendance—under 20, 20 to 30, 30 to 50, and so on—and salaries were fixed for the head teachers and assistants of those in each allotment, the teachers being left undisturbed in their positions. The scheme served to show the salaries without results (the latter a varying amount up to a half of the fixed salary) teachers would receive; but there was no system by which they might rise from rank to rank. Their positions were held at the pleasure of the Minister, and he exercised the right of appointment, transfer, and promotion. The rule was to submit applications for appointment to the Minister and to promote by seniority.

Political Patronage.—It was not very long before rumours were current that political influence was a powerful aid to the obtaining of a desired position, and the loudly expressed dissatisfaction of those who claimed that diligence and ability should be rewarded led the Minister, in 1878, to intimate that the question of the classification of teachers had been engaging serious attention, and that his desire was to recognize merit as shown by acquirements and skill in teaching and school management, and to exempt

teachers from the loss of income in consequence of fluctuations in the school population. However, for some time afterwards, political battles were being hotly contested. Ministries changed frequently, and promises remained unfulfilled. In February, 1881, *The Australasian Schoolmaster* declared that political patronage was now universally admitted to be the bane of the civil service; and in March, 1882, when commenting on the evidence given by the Secretary (Mr. G. Wilson Brown) and the Inspector-General (Mr. J. Bolam) before the Royal Commission on Education (the chairman of which was Mr. J. Warrington Rogers), it made the statement:—"Wherever a gross injustice has been perpetrated against the teachers, whether it be in the matter of promotions or in the mode of dealing with offences, it was shown to have arisen from the undue interference of the political head of the Department for the time being."

The "Public Service Act 1883."—At last, in 1883, when Mr. James Service was Premier and Minister of Public Instruction, the *Public Service Act* which gave teachers the full rights and privileges of public servants was passed.

The First Classified Roll.—The first "Classified Roll of State Schools and State School Teachers" issued in accordance with this Act bore date the 1st of January, 1885. It was a document of 100 folio pages, and one of great importance to teachers. Among other things, it enabled every teacher to see his actual position in the service, and to form an estimate of his prospect of promotion. The Committee of Classifiers consisted of Mr. J. Main (the Inspector-General of the Department), Mr. W. H. Nicholls (the elected representative of the teachers), and Mr. W. Murray Ross (a Government nominee)—an admirably constituted body.

What the Roll Showed.—The schools were arranged in five classes, with two subdivisions in the third. The Classifiers had to place

every teacher employed at the passing of the Act in the class corresponding to the school in which he was employed. Consequently, there were corresponding classes of teachers; but, in addition, each class except the first was arranged in three sub-classes (males and females apart), and there were also junior teachers. In deciding the sub-class in which each teacher should be placed, general conduct, proved teaching and organizing ability, literary qualifications and length of service were taken into account. Teachers chosen for a sub-class were arranged in order of seniority in the class.

There was, not unnaturally, a loud chorus of dissatisfaction from the teachers concerning, in particular, their positions in the sub-classes; for there were not a few who were disposed to put a higher value on themselves than the Classifiers had done. Fortunately, Parliament had provided a safety-valve: an appeal might be made from the Committee of Classifiers to the Public Service Board. There was some grumbling, too, that the wrongs of the past had not been set right, that teachers who had obtained their positions by favor were not removed to lower positions. Though it was thought an inquiry might reveal many such cases, yet the Classifiers were, no doubt, wise in respecting vested interests.

Literary Qualifications and Promotion.—As to promotion, it was laid down in the Act that the positions in the various classes of schools should be held by teachers in possession of certain certificates; for example, the head teacher of a first-class school (the average attendance of which had to exceed 700 pupils) must be certificated and classified in First Honors, or hold a degree of the University of Melbourne; but the head teacher of a fifth-class school, with an average attendance not exceeding 50 pupils, need only be licensed to teach.

Concessions.—Certain concessions were made to prevent the requirements for promotion pressing

heavily upon teachers, as the following will serve to show: "In the case of certificated teachers who, on the passing of this Act, shall be thirty years of age and upwards, and who have been then employed for ten years, and who, in the opinion of the Classifiers, exhibit special ability, the certificate required for promotion to any class may be dispensed with."

Revision and Supplementary Rolls.—The first Classified Roll was followed, at intervals of three years, by a revision, and supplementary rolls were issued every six months to notify changes. Every promotion was gazetted; and a teacher could thus judge whether anyone had been unfairly placed over his head.

A Good Piece of Work.—Those who framed this scheme might well have had a feeling of satisfaction concerning it. It accomplished its objects of securing a just and systematic classification of teachers, and of guarding against improper influence in the appointing, transferring, and promoting of them. Looking back over thirty-seven years of administration of the classification scheme, one cannot but feel that its introduction has been amply justified. The patient collection of details by skilled inspectors visiting schools every six months and making their estimates of the value of each teacher has resulted in the building up of a very complete system of records. These are the basis upon which the Classifiers work. Appeals against the estimates of inspectors are allowed to the administration, and the law sanctions appeals against the decisions of the Classifiers. As a result, political patronage has entirely vanished from the administration of the Victorian school system.

Changes in the Scheme of Classification.—The arrangement of teachers into the classes shown in the first Classified Roll remained in force about ten years, when it was seen by a Departmental Committee entrusted with the uncongenial task of retrenchment

that money could be saved by increasing the number of classes of schools. An Act to effect this was passed in January, 1895, whereby schools were placed in seven classes. Thus, many schools were reduced in classification, and a block in promotion was the result; for example, a head teacher of a fourth-class school might find it classed as a fifth according to the new requirements as to average attendance for the various classes, and thus would have to be transferred to a fourth-class school without increase in salary.

The unfortunate interference with the original Act rendered necessary by the financial stringency caused much hardship, and produced a condition of things that could be met only by a substantial amendment of the law. The action taken is described in Part III.

CHAPTER XIII.

TEACHERS' SALARIES.

The First Scale of Salaries.—Teachers were naturally much concerned, when the Education Bill was being discussed during the latter part of 1872, as to how they would fare when the fees on which they depended to a considerable extent for their incomes were abolished. It had been represented again and again that the change would not entail any hardship or loss on them, and that they would reap certain advantages. The regulation that was issued at an early date was not, however, in keeping with the promise. It was to the effect that teachers would be paid on the basis of receiving an amount equal to their fixed salaries for 1872 together with nine-tenths of their fees and results. Clearly, the Cabinet was fearful of what the cost of free education might be.

The Second Scale.—Though there is, undoubtedly, a call to the teaching profession as there is to the church, and with it a consequent willingness to be ready to sacrifice monetary gain for the satisfaction that comes from rendering service to the community, still the laborer is worthy of his hire, and a teacher may, without losing his self-respect, ask for payment that will enable him to maintain his position and do what is just to himself and those dependent on him. The teachers in 1873 at any rate thought so, for they straightway began to protest and agitate for better treatment. They got it; for, a few months later, another more carefully considered scheme was substituted for the first. A scale of payments was set out, based upon the number of pupils under instruction in each school. Thus, as regards head

teachers, it began: "In schools where the average attendance is below 20, £80. In schools where the average attendance is not less than 20 but under 30, £100," and so on, though not by equal increments as the numbers in attendance became larger. The result system, introduced by the Board of Education in 1863 in imitation of the English practice, was retained, and a teacher might, if his pupils passed the inspector's examination without a failure (a "dash" as it was called), obtain an amount equal to one-half of his fixed salary.

Discontented Teachers.—Mr. Stephen found the task of constructing a salaries' schedule a thankless one. The second scale no more contented all the teachers than the first had done. The reason is apparent from some remarks made by the Minister at the opening ceremony of the Malmsbury School: "There has been a difficulty about teachers' salaries," he said. "Under the old Act, some masters were getting very high salaries—one as high as £1,000 per annum, and several others ranging from £500 to £800. The highest salary under the new Act is £500."

Compensation Granted.—The people referred to, though few in number—most teachers were getting a miserable pittance under the Board—were able to bring influence to bear on members of Parliament. The upshot was that, in December, 1874, a resolution was passed in the Assembly to the effect that compensation should be given to all teachers for actual losses up to June, 1875; and, on the first of the following month, an amended regulation concerning salaries came into operation. The Department was then able to show that the average position of the teachers employed in 1872 was materially improved in 1875.

"Black Wednesday" and the Reduction of Teachers' Salaries.—But, a couple of years having passed, a thunderbolt fell upon the public service, involving teachers to some extent. Strife between the

Legislative Assembly and the Council led the Ministry, of which Mr. (afterwards Sir) Graham Berry was Premier and the Hon. W. Collard Smith (usually designated "the Honorable Major" Smith), to dismiss some hundreds of public servants. The day—9th of January, 1878—on which the first *Gazette* notice was seen in the offices is known as "Black Wednesday." Retrenchment in expenditure was the order of the day. The vote for education had increased from two hundred thousand pounds in 1872 to seven hundred thousand in 1877. The salaries of teachers was a big addend in the sum, and action was taken to make it smaller. This is how "the Honorable Major" put the position: "The rate of remuneration paid to teachers has come under revision; and, in view of the vast dimensions to which the education vote has now swelled—dimensions so vast as to threaten to imperil the very existence of the system—it has been deemed necessary, pending the adoption of the new scheme of classification, to introduce an amended schedule of payment."

Classification and the Rights of Civil Servants Promised to Teachers.—Though teachers had enough to think of in surmising what their losses would amount to (the schedule was issued in July), yet the reference to classification interested them. In 1872, they had been promised all the rights and privileges of civil servants; but the necessary action had been long delayed. Was it to come at last? There was still a period of waiting; but, in September, 1883, the Hon. James Service (Premier and Minister of Public Instruction at the time) was able to conclude his Annual Report with these assurances: "It is proposed, in the Public Service Bill now before Parliament, to render the appointment and promotion of all members of the teaching staffs of schools, as of all other public servants, independent of political influence, and dependent solely on good conduct, ability, and length

of service. Advantage has been taken of the opportunity offered by the changes proposed in the Bill to introduce other long promised and much needed reforms in connexion with the position and emoluments of teachers. Provision is made for arranging the members of this branch of the service in classes according to their certificates and the positions held; for giving annual increments, as in other departments; for securing them against fluctuations in income through circumstances beyond their control; and for adjusting the salaries so that these may correspond more exactly with the responsibilities and duties of the several positions. By these changes, it is hoped that, with little or no increase in expenditure, the office of teacher will be substantially benefited, additional inducements will be given to industry and good conduct as well as to the acquisition of higher certificates, and the public education of the colony will be materially advanced."

Average Salaries before 1883.—During the discussion on the Bill, a return was presented, showing that there were 1,697 head teachers and 792 assistants in the employ of the Department. Their average fixed salaries, exclusive of result payments and any sums earned as fees for giving instruction in extra subjects or as bonuses for preparing pupil teachers for their examination or for teaching singing, drawing, or drill, were as follow: Male head teachers, £171 16s. 4d.; women, £101 12s. 7d. Male assistants, £155 1s. 0d.; women, £119 1s. 9d.

Salaries Under the Provisions of the Public Service Act.—The classification brought into operation by the *Public Service Act*, passed on the 1st of November, 1883, did not materially affect salaries. Few teachers were reduced, and those who were received compensation. Dr. Pearson, when promising, towards the end of 1886, that some shortcomings in the new system would be remedied by fresh legislation, was able to

declare: "It would be too much to expect that so great a change would work without friction; and it may be deemed a matter for congratulation that, on the whole, there has been so little difficulty or conflict with pre-existing interests." This statement by the Minister was made, however, after the Cabinet had yielded to the requests of the teachers (led by a very active organization, the Male Assistant Teachers' Association, prominent in which were Messrs. John Murphy, C. R. Long, Wm. Burston, R. Short, P. K. O'Hara, D. Chessell, and G. Robinson) for increases of salary in the lower classes.

For male teachers, the minimum fixed salary (not including results) of those in charge of fifth-class schools or holding fifth-class assistantships was raised from £80 to £88, and the maximum from £104 to £136; for fourth-class teachers, the minimum from £112 to £114, and the maximum from £144 to £168; and for third-class teachers, the minimum from £152 to £176 (the distinction between the two divisions of that class having been abolished).

For women teachers, there were also increases; and the relieving teachers and those in charge of part-time schools had their allowances raised.

Reductions in Income.—A few years followed, during which, under the sympathetic guidance of Dr. Pearson as Minister of Public Instruction, the lot of teachers was much improved and considerable activity was manifested in educational institutions of all grades. It was an era of "peace progress and prosperity" for the community; but, unfortunately, prosperity tempted people into extravagance and speculation, and, in 1891, the beginnings of a reaction began to be visible. It soon developed. Strikes and other labor troubles threatened the stability of society, and a breakdown in credit took place. In the years of trial, savings had to be effected by the Government, and teachers lost much that they had gained in the

way of additional income. The Minister (the Hon. R. Baker) concludes his report, dated the 31st of October, 1893, with a review of the "reductions in the cost of public instruction rendered necessary by the diminished State funds available for education." Among them are mentioned a percentage of reductions from salaries and the allowance for school maintenance, and the discontinuance of payments for teaching singing, drawing, drill, and gymnastics, and for instructing pupil teachers.

The Retrenchment Scale.—A lower scale of payments applicable to all appointments to be made thereafter was soon afterwards adopted. In 1895, the need for economy still persisting, legislation was effected to increase the classes of teachers and allot salaries. The following table shows the new classification:—

Class.	Male Teachers.			Female Teachers.	
	Head.	Assistants.		None	
First	£239 to £288	None			
Second	191 „ 233	None		£126 to £138	
Third	157 „ 185	£157 to £164		110 „ 122	
Fourth	130 „ 151	130 „ 137		85 „ 105	
Fifth	96 „ 124	96 „ 103		74 „ 79	
Sixth	82 „ 89	None		64 „ 69	
Seventh	£75	None		£60	
Eighth	70	£70		56	

Note.—The amounts given do not include result payments, which averaged from 80 to 85 per cent. of the half of each amount.

The Amalgamation of Schools.—The policy of amalgamating schools, which was commenced in 1892 and carried out concurrently with the other methods of effecting savings, added to the work of many head teachers. The less important of two school-buildings was made an adjunct; and, in it, junior classes only were taught, one of the head teachers, and, it might happen, some other members of the staff being transferred. Up to June, 1902, 82 schools had been made adjuncts. As the Minister of the day

said:—"Financial necessity forced upon the Administration in 1892 the amalgamation of schools in large centers of population. This was a regrettable incident, and it is to be hoped that, in course of time, the system of adjunct schools will be abolished."

The Effects of the Retrenchment Policy.—The Act of the 29th of January, 1895, classifying teachers and regulating their salaries, was the last of the retrenchment Acts, for the corner had been turned. Unfortunately for teachers, the legislation was so comprehensive and far-reaching in its character that its effects were felt for many years, and not a little of the work of Ministers and administrative officers since has had to be devoted to counteracting them, and restoring to the service a spirit of contentment and hope.

CHAPTER XIV.

INSPECTORS AND INSPECTION.

The Executive Officers and the Inspectorial Staff.—Among the professional officers of the Board of Education at the passing of the 1872 Act were Messrs. Budd, Venables, Brown, and Topp, and to these reference has been made in Chapter VIII. The other inspectors who continued to work in the field were Messrs. Joseph Geary, H. A. Sasse, B.A. (Melb.), John Sircom, Archd. Gilchrist, M.A., LL.B. (Melb.), John Main (a barrister-at-law who had attended lectures at the Edinburgh University, but, after coming to Victoria, had taken up teaching and been appointed to the inspectorial staff when head teacher of a national school), J. S. Elkington, B.A. (Melb.), Thomas Bolam, and Thomas Brodribb, M.A. (Lond.).

Inspectors' Visits.—To judge from their annual reports before and after the change, the district inspectors followed the same methods of work as they had been accustomed to. They visited their schools twice a year—once without notice—the “surprise visit”—for the observation of the school premises and furniture, the organization, the instruction, and the discipline; and, the second time, after a fortnight's notice, to examine for results and assess the amount that the teacher was to receive as an addition to his fixed salary.

Reports on Schools.—As the journeys from school to school were long in the sparsely populated country, the time the inspector was able to spend with the teacher and his pupils was often brief, and the comments left in the large-paged, blue-covered book, *The Inspector's Register*, were not voluminous. At the visit for the result examination, the inspector took good care to keep within the regulation and his

confidential instructions so that an appeal might not prove a source of worry to him, and left the teacher very much to his own devices to get a better result next time.

As the years went by, the headings in inspectors' reports increased in number, and the comments became more numerous, longer, and more helpful. Long ago, the inspector was relieved of having to calculate, as was the practice for many years, the percentage of passes to three places of decimals.

Reports on Teachers.—An important part of the inspector's duty was to report to the Department the opinion he had formed as to the character and qualifications of the teachers in his district, so that a record might be kept for reference when applications for promotion and transfer were being considered. It was the custom of the Department, if the report was unfavorable to a teacher, to acquaint him with the fact.

The Exemption Certificate.—A less exacting piece of work was the awarding of the "Certificate of a Child being Sufficiently Educated," a title altered, in 1886, to that of "Certificate of Exemption from Compulsory Attendance." Inspectors were enjoined to give every facility for obtaining this certificate, and to hold, in addition to their annual school examinations, special examinations in centers of population. The Minister's Annual Report records, year by year, the number of certificates obtained. In 1873, it was 2,334, and, in the closing year of the century, over ten thousand. Those who instituted this certificate, no doubt, had sufficient reasons for doing so; but its issue on the low standard of acquirements prescribed has been anathematized by many a man and woman who left school at an early age mainly through having received it, and found themselves, a few years afterwards, barely able to read and write. The con-

ditions of acquiring the certificate were made more stringent in 1901, and it ceased to be issued in 1911.

Additions to the Inspectorial Staff.—The continued accession of new schools, the establishment of each one requiring more or less of an inspector's attention, increased the amount of work to be performed, and additions had to be made to the staff, and the colony parcelled out into fresh districts. These, in 1874, numbered fourteen. The additions to the staff in 1873 and 1874 were Messrs. Joseph Baldwin, Robert Craig, M.A., LL.B. (Melb.), James Holland, M.A. (Melb.), Richard Philp, B.A. (Dublin), Alfred C. Curlewis, M.A. (Melb.), Charles Tynan, B.A., LL.B. (Melb.), Samuel J. Swindley; and, a year or two later, Henry Shelton, B.A. (Melb.), Samuel Summons, M.A., LL.B. (Melb.), S. Ware, B.A. (Melb.), and Wm. M. M. Campbell, M.A. (Melb.).

An Inspector's District.—Mr. Holland, the best of the men of his time in classics at the University of Melbourne, was appointed to the staff in February, 1873. In June, he took charge of the Ararat District, which extended northward and westward from his headquarters, and embraced nearly a quarter of Victoria. The school conditions he found in the wide territory over which he exercised control with a benignity that endeared him to many hundreds of teachers, he has thus described: "There were groups of schools around Ararat, Stawell, St. Arnaud, and Beaufort, and a string of schools between Skipton and Apsley—more string than schools. In 1873-4-5, selectors flooded in from all sides both from Victoria and South Australia (the latter mostly Germans). In 1876, the whole of the northern plains up to Lake Buloke and Hindmarsh were dotted over with schools. These were opened at first in log-huts, shanties, apartments of private residences—any place that afforded accommodation. The schools had often to be put in charge of broken-down business and professional men,

old schoolmasters, university-men, army-men, *et hoc genus omne*. Some of these had been merely unfortunate, and were men of culture and character. When I left the Wimmera, about January, 1876, new townships had sprung up everywhere, school-houses had been built, or suitable halls erected, and the schools were fairly staffed. The change in something less than three years was great."

Remuneration of Inspectors.—Charles H. Pearson, M.A., LL.D., who inquired as a Royal Commission into Public Education in 1877, considered that inspectors were "most inadequately paid," and was of opinion that, though the Department had formed a staff of qualified inspectors, it had done so more or less by accident.

In the seventies, the minimum salary of an inspector (disregarding those filling the administrative positions in the office) was £300, and the maximum £550. The *Public Service Act 1883* classified the office of inspector in the Professional Division of the Public Service, and provided that the Public Service Board should fill a vacancy by the appointment of an officer possessing the particular qualifications required by the office—merit, good and diligent conduct, length of service, relative seniority, and the nature of the work he was performing being taken into consideration. The salaries provided commenced at £300 and rose to £650.

Inspectors were not exempted from retrenchment in the nineties. The revised scale showed a minimum of £250 and a maximum of £500; amounts which have, of course, been raised since. The right to claim a certain sum per day for travelling was taken away, and a yearly allowance based upon the size and nature of the district was substituted.

More Additions to the Staff.—Up to 1878, almost all the men chosen for the position of inspector had been University graduates, and most of them had

had little, if any, experience of teaching in elementary schools. There came a change, and a valuable addition was made to the councils of the Department, when the Hon. W. Collard Smith, who held the portfolio of Minister of Public Instruction at the time, appointed several successful head teachers. These were Messrs. W. M. Gamble, Alexander Stewart, Ross Cox, and John Dennant. Mr. R. F. Russell, B.A., who united scholarship qualifications with success as a teacher, and a barrister (Mr. A. T. Lewis, LL.B.) who had been secretary to the Pearson Commission, were appointed about the same time.

For some years following, only the vacancies that occurred were filled. Messrs. F. H. Rennie, M.A., Henry F. Rix, B.A., F. C. Eddy, M.A., and Colin H. Campbell, LL.B., were appointed in 1883; Messrs. J. E. Laing, M.A., and P. Carmichael, M.A., in 1884; Mr. John Robertson, M.A., in 1885; and Mr. Alfred Jackson (both from the position of lecturer in the Training College) in 1886; and Mr. Wm. Hamilton, B.A., in 1887. One of the results of the Act of 1883 was to increase considerably the number of teachers studying to obtain a University degree, and, a few years later, when the inspectorial staff was largely augmented, the appointees* were both graduates and experienced teachers. They were not old in years, however. The Victorian practice of making appointments to the inspectorial staff has been, in contrast to

*These were, in 1888-89, Messrs. Alfred Dean, M.A., Alfred Fussell, B.A., A. J. Hart, M.A., Wm. Cavanagh, M.A., T. W. Bothroyd, M.A., W. F. Gates, M.A., C. S. Halkyard, B.A., and J. McOwan, B.A. To fill the vacancy caused by Mr. Dean's transfer from the Training College, where he had been a lecturer, to the inspectorial staff, Mr. Frank Tate, B.A., was appointed. Later additions to the staff were Messrs. C. R. Long, M.A. and J. Livingstone, M.A., in 1890; Messrs. James L. Robertson, M.A., and Wm. Park, M.A., in 1891; and Messrs. John Cross, B.A., A. S. Burgess, M.A., J. H. Betheras, M.A., J. J. Bothroyd, B.A., and J. Hocking, B.A., in 1900.

that in some of the other States, to recognize ability before the man has grown grey in the service.

Conferences of Inspectors.—The *Australasian Schoolmaster* in February, 1882, commenced a leading article with the sentence: "We have lately had the once common, but now obsolete, institution of the conference of inspectors to discuss projected alterations and possibilities." These words reveal an important phase of the inspector's work. There was need, at this time, for all the wisdom of the Department. The Royal Commission on Education, 1881-84, had been taking evidence, the classification scheme with all that it involved was beginning to be considered in earnest, and there was a feeling that the course of free instruction should be revised. The Minister of the day, one of much experience in office (the Hon. J. Macpherson Grant) and his immediate officers (Messrs. Brown, Bolam, Main, and Swindley) had no doubt taken the opportunity of the presence at the head office of the inspectors (who would have been examining in January the papers of competitors for exhibitions and candidates for certificates) to set them deliberating on some of the problems that awaited solution. There is no record of the time spent by the inspectors at this conference, but one held two years later, when the main topic was the final determination of the new course of instruction, occupied thirteen days.

Inspectors' Annual Reports.—There was another way also in which inspectors could help and influence the law-makers and the administrative staff, namely, through their annual reports. "We give these gentlemen the opportunity of expressing their opinions without in any way pledging ourselves to the views which they may entertain," has been the declaration of many Ministers. In the twenty-eight Reports presented annually to Parliament during the period under review, that for 1873 is the only one which does not contain reports by the district inspectors.

In more recent years, the publication, month by month, of the official *Education Gazette and Teachers' Aid* has given inspectors a ready and effective medium for addressing teachers, and hence their annual reports have lost a good deal of the importance they used to have.

THE RESULT SYSTEM.

What the Result System Was.—Countless pens have traversed reams of paper under the heading “The Result System”—a system whereby a teacher’s fixed salary was supplemented as an incentive to the diligent performance of duty. In 1863, the Board of Education, following the lead of the educational authorities in England, introduced it into Victoria. It was adopted by the Education Department; for Section 17 of the *Education Act 1872* made the following provision: “For the free instruction of all children attending school in the subjects specified in the First Schedule hereto, teachers of State schools shall be paid such salary and remuneration by way of results as shall be fixed by regulation.”

What “Results” Meant to the Teacher.—The “results” were the percentage of passes secured by the pupils at examination; and the first regulation issued by the Department stated that the maximum payment which any teacher could obtain by way of results would be an amount equal to one half of his fixed salary. The annual examination to determine this dominated everything, and determined in detail the work of every school.

Modifications in the System.—At first, the regulations guiding the inspector in assessing the result payment were rigid; but they became less so as the years went on; and by the end of the century allowed such liberal procedure that it was a natural step, in 1902, to discontinue, in great measure, result examinations, and, when the opportunity arrived (which it

did not do till 1905) to abolish the result system altogether by Act of Parliament.

A Gauge of the Work of Teachers.—It was easy to point out some bad effects that were produced by the examinations for results, and yet the men who supervised the work of teachers were loath to part with a means of reward to the diligent and punishment to the indolent. It afforded a ready means, if imperfect, of gauging the work of schools.

Objections to the System.—The main objectives to the system as it existed in the early eighties were stated at a meeting of the Melbourne Head Teachers' Association in February, 1886, by Mr. John Murphy, whose untimely death in 1890 was a severe loss to the teaching service. The following is a summary of them: "I believe the system to be inimical to the interests of true education, and, owing to its inquisitorial nature, degrading to the teachers. . . . If educational work were a thing that admitted of being accurately measured in a numerical sense, there might be some justification for a payment by results system. . . . It is the best contrivance ever invented for encouraging 'cram' in the worst educational sense of the word. . . . Teachers did not instruct on the lines of the program, they busied themselves about keeping to the beaten tracks which the inspectors had laid down. . . . It is wrong to suppose that the result examination tests the true character of the teacher's work. . . . It is grossly unfair that the percentage of payments is based on the average percentage of the whole school, not on the work that any one individual teacher does. . . . Why should the teacher who has done his or her work satisfactorily have to suffer through the laches of others?"

Liberalizing the Result System.—After the promulgation, in 1885, of a revised and extended course of free instruction—a marked advance on that of 1873—there was a suspension of result examinations for

about two years. When they were resumed, a change began to come over the methods of measuring the intellectual worth of the teacher's work. A more liberal method of examination was adopted. In some subjects only was it deemed necessary to examine each child. Allowances were made for pupils unavoidably absent; and discipline for the first time became an element in estimating the result percentage of a school. In order, as it was thought, to be fair to the teacher, it had been the practice to examine his pupils in the work prescribed for the next lower class; but, in 1888, the teacher was given the option of having his school examined in the program work of the class in which his pupils actually were enrolled, and, shortly afterwards, this procedure was made general, to the advantage of both teachers and pupils.

Diligence Not Necessarily Produced by the Result System.—In a report on the education of New South Wales, Mr. Brodribb, in 1888, when he was Assistant Inspector-General, expressed the opinion that teachers displayed quite as much industry and worked just as hard as the teachers of Victoria did; and Messrs. Main (Inspector-General) and Topp (Principal of the Training College), after a prolonged inquiry in New South Wales and South Australia during the following year, came to the same conclusion.

Further Modifications.—In 1890, the Minister (Dr. Pearson), with these reports (together with much other evidence on the subject of payment by results) before him, though not prepared to abolish the system at once, decided to modify it considerably.

The Merit Grant.—The maximum percentage obtainable by examination was fixed at 85 per cent., and a "merit grant" (not to exceed 15 per cent.), was to be awarded. The inspector was to award the merit grant in accordance with his estimate of the teacher's worth as revealed in the following matters:—

1. State of premises, furniture, apparatus and

supply of requisites, including their proper care; due economy as regards the free stock.

2. Arrangement of school work (including timetable), distribution of staff, supervision, classification, discipline, tone, and general effectiveness of management,

3. Style of work at examinations and inspections, progress (as shown by percentage of promotions), presence of a sixth class (where practicable).

Owing, however, to the sudden inflation of percentages, consequent, it was supposed, on so high a merit grant, and to the great diversity among inspectors in the mode of awarding it, it was considered advisable, two years later, to alter the maximum to 90 for passes at examinations and 10 for the merit grant. Later, as a retrenchment act, the merit grant was reduced to six.

The Certificate of Merit.—In 1890, the idea was conceived of issuing a certificate to those children who successfully passed the examination prescribed for the sixth (the highest for which a course of work was prescribed) class. The Certificate of Merit (now entitled the Merit Certificate) quite justified its existence; it not only satisfied the honorable ambition of many a pupil and kept him at school longer than he might otherwise have stayed, but, by affording evidence of diligence, steadiness, and intelligence, it also served as a passport to employment. The test was a stringent one; and, in 1891, only 916 certificates were granted. The number rose the next year to 1,014. For the succeeding three years, it was below a thousand, then it exceeded it, and has done so ever since.

Progress.—The average percentage of passes for all schools gained at the result examinations in 1872 was 64.9; in 1873, owing to the influx of children who had not been at school or who had been irregular in attendance, it was 58.7; and, in 1900, it had risen to 81.7.

CHAPTER XV.

THE COURSE OF INSTRUCTION, EXTRA SUBJECTS, EXHIBITIONS AND SCHOLAR- SHIPS, SCRIPTURAL INSTRUCTION, AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

The Course of Instruction, as it was to Begin With.
—The framers of the Act of 1872, while recognizing that everyone should receive an education, evidently did not consider it necessary that what was to be given gratis should be on a liberal scale. The intention was, as Mr. Stephen expressed it in his introductory speech on the Bill, that “the children of the country, without any distinction whatever, should be entitled to a free education in the subjects of reading, writing, and arithmetic.” The list of subjects to be taught, which formed the first schedule of the Act, were, however, not quite so short as his words would imply. It included reading, writing, arithmetic, grammar, geography, drill and (where practicable), gymnastics, and sewing and needlework in addition for girls. (It would be interesting to know by whose inspiration it was that needlework was made an addition to sewing.) But, while the free course was rather restricted, provision was made that there should be additions to it for the children of parents who could afford to pay for instruction and were willing to do so. A part of Section 17 was to the following effect: “For instruction in other branches, fees shall be charged to the parents in accordance with a scale to be fixed; and the teacher shall be entitled to such fees, subject to a percentage to be deducted, which shall be applied

as a fund for the payment of the teachers by way of results''; and the Governor in Council was given power to make regulations.

No Marked Change from the Board's Course of Instruction.—The Minister stated in June, 1873, that "it had not been thought desirable to make any considerable and sudden change in the course of instruction in the schools"; and, in the November of that year, a regulation setting out the requirements for six classes (the number that a good school would have; many were without a sixth class) was gazetted. The requirements did not differ in essentials from those that had existed under the Board. Those for the sixth (the highest) class were as follow: *Reading and Explanation*—Any book or newspaper. *Dictation*—From any book or newspaper. *Writing*—Mercantile writing. *Arithmetic*—Vulgar and decimal fractions. *Grammar*—Prefixes, affixes, and analysis from Morell. *Geography*—Generally of the world. *Needlework*—Put work together, cut out, and all plain needlework."

An Exception: Singing and Drawing Omitted.—Singing and drawing had not been included in the schedule of free instruction; but the visiting teachers of these subjects were allowed to continue their classes under the regulations for extra subjects. In the past, a fee of a penny a week had been charged for each subject, and it had been the practice of the Board to supplement by an equal amount what each teacher received. The fee was authorized by the Education Department, but no subsidy could be paid under the provisions of the Act. The result was that Parliament agreed to vote a sum of money to be distributed among the teachers as compensation. It subsequently resolved also to include singing and drawing in the program of free instruction. Visiting singing and drawing masters were appointed, and teachers on the school staff (if qualified) were paid for giving instruction in the subjects.

The Teaching of Science in Elementary Schools.—A wave of interest in the teaching of science reached Victoria in the late seventies. The Minister of the day (the Hon. W. Collard Smith, who represented Ballarat, where there was a progressive School of Mines) was desirous of introducing the subject into elementary schools, and gave instructions that teachers should be encouraged to present themselves in one or more branches of science. He found in several of the inspectors—especially Messrs. C. A. Topp and John Dennant—able advocates.

Dr. Pearson Favored an Extension of the Course of Instruction.—In 1877, Dr. Pearson wrote: "I would slightly increase the range of subjects that a teacher is bound to teach gratuitously. I can see no reason why two books of Euclid and the elements of algebra and the Latin language should not be taught in every upper-sixth class, or why every teacher obtaining a certificate of teaching should not be expected to give lessons in drill and in singing or geometric drawing. . . . I venture to recommend as specially important that exercises in English composition be substituted for exercises in analysis."

A Revision of the Course Desirable.—During the year 1877, there was a growing feeling that a thorough and systematic revision of the course was necessary; but nothing definite was done. Mr. Brodribb, in the concluding paragraph of the last report he wrote as a district inspector before his appointment as Assistant Inspector-General in 1883, remarked that "the programme of instruction had been almost stereotyped for the last sixteen years or more."

Why Changes Had Not Been Made.—There was, certainly, some excuse for this. The work of supplying schools and teachers to meet the educational needs of the growing colony under a free and compulsory system was very exacting, and left the chief adminis-

trative officers little time for studying syllabuses of instruction and modifying their own. As to the teachers, seeing that a part of their income was determined by way of results, they could hardly be expected to desire alterations in what they had grown accustomed to teach.

The New Course of Instruction, 1885.—However, in 1884, the work of revision and addition was taken in hand with determination, and a new course of instruction was issued early in the following year. A considerable extension of the work in each class had been made, and more detail supplied in connexion with each subject of instruction.

The Nature of the Changes.—Learning poems by heart was to be a part of the work of all classes. Dictation was to be taken from the class reading-book, not from that of the class next below. In the fifth and sixth classes, composition was to be practised, and lessons in this subject might be substituted for some of the dictation exercises. In the writing, text hand was to give place to half-text. The most important changes in arithmetic were that pupils should be taught to state and work exercises from dictation, be made familiar with the practical applications of the various rules, and practised in solving exercises mentally. Shortly afterwards, mensuration was prescribed for the fifth and sixth classes. Grammar was omitted from the syllabus of the second class. In geography, more prominence was to be given to the explanation of terms, and formal provision was made for the teaching of descriptive geography to supplement the details of topography. In the higher classes, history—quite a new subject—was prescribed. There, also, general lessons had to be given as an introduction to physical science—the science to consist of a treatment of the causes of common natural phenomena, the principles of construction of machines in daily use, and the physical laws that they illustrate.

Progress and Retrogression.—The course of instruction of 1885 remained without material alteration till 1902 as far as the schools generally were concerned; but there were schools, especially in Melbourne and some of the other large centers, where certain subjects not in the course and new methods of treatment were introduced in the later years of the eighties and the early nineties. Progress was stopped during the retrenchment period that followed, and valuable reforms were thus postponed for a decade or more.

It may be worth while considering briefly how each subject of the course gained or declined in importance as the years went by, and noting the variations in the method of treatment by the teacher.

Reading.—This subject very fittingly stood first in the first course of instruction, with the very "stiff" requirement in the highest class that the pupil should read "any book or newspaper"—a prescription that no one has proposed to "stiffen." When the Board of National Education commenced operations in 1852, it looked to the Irish National System for guidance. It imported many of the textbooks, as well as the reading-books, issued by the Irish National Board. These books contained, from the simplest book upwards, a long series of articles on Old Testament subjects. Under the Board of Education, the use of these reading-books was continued, and, when the Department took over control, it was unable, at the time to supply others.

Apart from the drawback that the nature of portions of the subject-matter might give offence, the books, were, no doubt, felt by the inspectors and teachers to be unsuitable. Much in them had reference to topics quite outside the experience of Australian children, and they were without annotations and other aids that should be available for the teacher, especially the poorly educated and inadequately trained. Though the publisher had much improved the books for the use of Australians by inserting some

local articles contributed by Mr. Archibald Gilchrist, M.A., LL.B., one of the school inspectors, the Department sought for another series, and found it in Nelson's *Royal Readers*. In 1877, supplies were obtained, and an issue up to one-third of the number of pupils on the roll of each school was made as free stock. In 1887, an enlarged edition of the *Royal Readers* containing a large number of articles on Australian topics, several of them by the pen of Mr. C. A. Topp, was introduced.

The Origin of "The School Paper."—The practice of supplying reading matter each month instead of making use of an ordinary reading-book had (it is thought) its origin in South Australia, where the head of the Department (Mr. J. A. Hartley) issued the first number of the *Children's Hour* in March, 1889. A few years later, the South Australian paper was brought under the notice of the Minister—Mr. Peacock—who, having had inquiries made concerning its preparation and use, instructed the Board of Examiners (the chairman of which was Mr. J. Holland, M.A.), to issue such a publication for the third class. Mr. C. R. Long, M.A. (who was at the time Training Master) was appointed editor. The first number of *The School Paper* appeared in February, 1896; and, though for some time rather too difficult, the publication possessed features that commended it to teachers, parents, and children. Another paper for the fourth class was published in June, 1897, and a third for the fifth and sixth classes in September of the following year. For many years after its introduction, it was the only subject-matter prescribed for use during the ordinary reading lessons.

The founding of *The School Paper*, which has been imitated in most of the Australian States and in New Zealand, and now has a monthly circulation of over 200,000 copies, was, in no small degree, due to a resolution of the Assembly in 1895, to the following

effect: "In the opinion of this House, reading-books, and, as far as possible, all other books used in State schools should be compiled and written in the colony."

Earlier expressions of opinion from the same source to the effect that school books should be produced locally stimulated the Department, in the late eighties, to arrange for the publication by the Government Printer of adaptations of an excellent series of books for beginners and the first class, edited by Mr. A. J. Hartley, the energetic educationist of South Australia. These books—*The Primer* and *The First Book*—have been revised from time to time, and have passed through very many editions.

Writing.—In the early years, many kinds of copy-books were to be found in schools, to the distraction of the inspectors, who desired to see some teaching of writing in a collective way—a method of instruction much hampered by the variety of styles that might exist in the one class. The futility of setting little fingers to write full text, which was prescribed in Regulation I. for the third class, and kept in revision after revision of the course of instruction, was recognized at last. It was mainly for these reasons that the Department decided to have a uniform series of copy-books; and the desire of Parliament for local production led to the appointment, in 1890, of a committee to determine the style and headlines and advise the Government Printer during the process of engraving the plates and making-up the books. The work took some time; but, after June, 1897, *The Australian Copy-books* (as they were named) were the only ones allowed to be used in the schools.

Arithmetic.—In Regulation I., issued in the first half of 1873, the prescription in the third of the "three R's," arithmetic, for the fifth class was—"To proportion and practice, with the four simple rules

in decimals''; and, for the sixth—''Vulgar and decimal fractions.'' It remained the same in the second issue of the regulation that appeared later in the year; but, in 1875, the prescription runs thus for the sixth class—''Compound proportion, interest, vulgar and decimal fractions.''

The course of instruction issued in 1885 made a better provision for the actual needs of life by adding to the requirements in arithmetic the following injunction: ''Children above the first class should be taught to work dictated exercises and examples in the practical applications of the rules prescribed for the several classes. Suitable mental exercises in the various rules should be given in each class. Exercises under the head of 'Proportion' may be worked by the unitary method.'' The uncertainty as to the tables to be learnt was removed by the prescription of a Table Book.

Not long afterwards, the need for a knowledge of mensuration was recognized, and the addition was made to the sixth-class work of ''the calculation of the area and sides of right-angled triangles, and of the diameter, circumference, and area of circles, and the contents and dimensions of triangular and cylindrical solids.'' The arithmetic tests given for the Merit Certificate in the nineties and for exhibitions and the Certificate of Competency from 1872 onward show that a high standard of acquirement in the subject was reached by many teachers and their pupils.

During the nineties, one of the inspectors (Mr. H. F. Rix) made an exhaustive study of the teaching of number to beginners. He published in Melbourne a monumental work on the subject—*The Pictorial Method of Teaching the First Steps in Arithmetic*, and caused to be manufactured counters and other devices for carrying out his ideas.*

*These were a mere fraction of Mr. Rix's many educational activities. He was ever evolving more rational

Grammar and Composition.—Dr. Morell (an H.M.I.) and the publishers of his *Grammar of the English Language, together with an Exposition of the Analysis of Sentences*, must have smiled gleefully when they saw, in the regulations of the newly-formed Education Department of Victoria, the following prescription under Class VI.: “*Grammar*—Syntax and prefixes and affixes, and analysis from Morell.” Tens of thousands of copies of the book came to Victoria, and there are teachers to-day—the older generation, passing, alas! rapidly away—who can yet repeat pages of Morell.

There was no mention of composition in the first course of instruction; and, in 1877, Dr. Pearson, seeing what the study of English based largely on the mastering of prefixes, affixes, and roots, parsing, and analysis in accordance with the presentation afforded by one book was likely to result in, wrote the following apposite sentences in his Report: “I venture to recommend as specially important that exercises in English composition be substituted to some extent for exercises in analysis. However useful it may be for a child to reduce a sentence to its component parts, he will gain more by learning to write or to draw up a summary.” His advice was followed in the course of 1885, when the fifth class was required to do “easy exercises in composition, including letter-writing”; and the sixth “more advanced exercises.”

Geography.—The early prescriptions were: “The continents, oceans, larger seas, with their relative positions (the second class); minor seas, chief gulfs, capes, bays, peninsulas, and islands of the World (the third class); the countries (with their relative positions and capitals), the principal mountains, rivers,

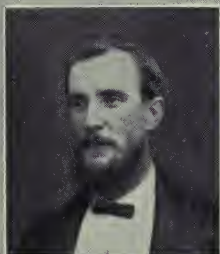
means of teaching the various subjects. His worth, both as a man and as an educator, was so widely recognized that, after his untimely death in 1906, a fund was soon raised to establish a memorial to his memory. It took the form of the Rix Medal, which is awarded annually at the Melbourne High School.



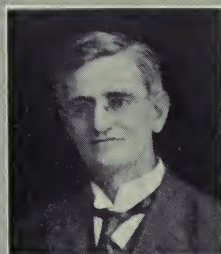
MISS E. TRICKETT.



MR. T. HURLY.



MR. W. R. FURLONG.



DR. R. LAWSON.



MR. E. SWEETMAN.



MISS A. WALLIS.

SOME OFFICERS OF THE TEACHERS' (FORMERLY TRAINING)
COLLEGE—PAST AND PRESENT:

Miss Trickett (drawing), Mr. Hurly (Vice-Principal), Mr. Furlong (singing), Dr. Lawson (languages), Mr. Sweetman (history and education), and Miss Wallis (kindergarten).



MR J. HOLLAND.



MR S. WARE.



MR W. M. GAMBLE.



MR A. C. CURLEWIS.



MR J. E. LAING.



MR H. F. RIX.

AT ONE TIME INSPECTORS OF SCHOOLS.

and lakes of the World (the fourth class); maps of Europe and Australia (the fifth class); and generally of the World (the sixth class)."

The result of such a prescription was to cause the teachers to concentrate the whole of their attention on topography. Lists of capes and islands, mountains and rivers, countries and their capitals, and the like were committed to memory. The inspectors would ask, "What and where is ——?" and the teachers (if they were wise) saw to it that their pupils knew the answer. The 1885 course of instruction liberalized the subject by prescribing "descriptive" geography, and also required more attention to be given to the British Empire than to the other parts of the World. A much later development was local geography—attention to the environment of home and school before launching out into the unknown.

History.—There was no reference to history in the first course of instruction issued by the Department; nor was it mentioned among the extra subjects, for instruction in which fees were to be paid. The reading-books contained a few historical articles in addition to a considerable amount of Scripture history. The *Royal Readers* (which took their place in 1876) had no Scripture history, but several articles culled from the works of standard historians, and, in addition, the *Outlines of British History* from 55 B.C. onward. These portions were treated merely as subject-matter for reading lessons; but when, in 1885, the course was expanded, the *Outlines* in each class-book were prescribed to be learnt by that class, and history was made a result subject. In 1890, supplementary historical readers were introduced; but, during the era of financial depression, were declared to be not obligatory. In 1775, Mr. Marcus Clarke was commissioned to write a *History of Australia* for use in schools. A year or two later, it was circulated but not prescribed for study. In the early eighties, Mr. David Blair and Mr. C. A. Topp wrote a series

of articles on the history and constitution of Australia for insertion in the *Royal Readers*. The use of them did not extend beyond the reading hour. In the nineties, the Board of Examiners was asked by the Minister to recommend a book to supplement the *Outlines* in the *Royal Readers*, and chose Nelson's *The Empire: A Complete History from the Roman Times to the Present Day*. No further changes were made till a new mode of treating the subject appeared in the course of study issued in 1902.

Elementary Science.—The word “science” does not appear in the course of free instruction, but “elements of natural science” finds a place among the extra subjects, a fee of threepence a week having to be paid for instruction.

In the seventies, a wave of interest in scientific study struck Victoria; and, late in that decade, the problem of how to graft the teaching of science and technical training upon the State-school system was being seriously considered by the Department. As a beginning, teachers were urged to qualify themselves to teach some branch of science in their schools, and provision was made for holding examinations and issuing certificates. Certified teachers were informed that they would be expected to come up at the end of the following year for examination in at least one branch of science, and, further, that failure to pass would greatly retard their promotion.

The cause had a diligent worker and able advocate in Mr. C. A. Topp, and there was a good response from the teachers. This became stronger when they saw the course of instruction issued in 1885. In the first class, “general lessons” appeared, and in every other class up to the sixth. In the fifth class, the prescription ran:—“Object lessons; lessons on the causes of day and night and of the seasons; the simpler kinds of physical and mechanical appliances, for example, the thermometer, the barometer, lever, pulley, pump, and spirit-level.” In the sixth class,

it ran: "Object lessons; lessons on the general characteristics of animal and vegetable life; the principal divisions of the animal and vegetable kingdoms; the chief organs of the body." As no choice was given, one cannot say that the work prescribed was a mere bagatelle.

Drawing.—Payment for the teaching of drawing in the elementary schools of Victoria began in 1864. In that year, it was taught in 39 of the 647 common schools to 1,688 pupils at a cost to their parents and the Board of Education of £340 13s. 3d. Teachers licensed to impart instruction visited the schools, and were paid a penny a week by each pupil taught by them, to which was added, by the Board, an amount equal to what they had received.

Drawing finds no place in the list of free subjects in the Act of 1872, nor in the first and second sets of regulations—those issued in 1873—not even among the extra subjects. In the Minister's Annual Report for 1873-74 (not dated, but probably presented to Parliament in October, 1874), it is stated that "instructors to whom the teaching of drawing had given employment were only able to continue their classes under the regulation for extra subjects." It was not long, however, before drawing received the justice due to it. The Hon. Robert Ramsay, in October, 1875, states that "the Legislature having voted a sum of money for the purpose of providing free instruction in singing and drawing, arrangements for its appropriation were made with the object of enabling as many children as possible to participate in the advantage of such instruction." Henceforth, the penny a week was not asked for, for the Board remunerated visiting teachers, and paid a bonus to qualified teachers on the staff who formed classes for the subject. In round numbers, 36,000 children were practising drawing in 1875.

The public of the metropolis was given an opportunity, in 1884, of judging of the work done in the

elementary schools, for the drawing masters held an exhibition of their pupils' work in the Melbourne Town Hall. A newspaper comment runs thus: "Taking it altogether, this juvenile exhibition is creditable alike to the pupils and to the teachers, who are evincing a praiseworthy determination to ground them in the rudiments of design."

It is evident, however, that, owing to the issue of the new course of instruction in 1885, the consideration given to the matter and method of the various subjects which were being taught in the State schools produced the impression that the position of drawing might be improved. An important result was the importation, in 1888, of a well-trained, successful, head-master of a School of Art in London to act as Art Inspector (Mr. G. G. Simpson). Soon after his arrival, he submitted a comprehensive and instructive report on the drawing in the elementary schools. This was followed by recommendations, and, at the beginning of 1889, by a revised syllabus for the subject.

The year before Mr. Simpson's arrival, drawing was taught in 204 schools by 19 visiting teachers and 115 members of the ordinary staff. It made good progress under his direction. After some years, however, he returned to England; and, for a time, the Department was without an Art Inspector. The services of all visiting masters were dispensed with on the 30th of June, 1893, and payment to the members of the regular school staff engaged in teaching the subject ceased on the 31st of March of the same year. To lessen the hardship in the case of the visiting masters, they were permitted to form classes in the schools on their respective lists, and to charge those who joined a small fee. The subject languishing through lack of direction and oversight, it was decided to appoint, as successor to Mr. Simpson, Mr. P. M. Carew-Smyth, A.R.C.A. (Lond.), at the time Director of the Ballarat School of Art. Through his

directive action by voice and pen, his persistence in requiring teachers to qualify themselves to give instruction in the subject, and the suitability of the syllabus, drawing has become a part of the ordinary work of the elementary schools, and is now taught with as much confidence and skill as any one of the "three R's."

Singing.—Singing and drawing were closely associated under the Board of Education. As they were looked upon as "accomplishments," and as the procedure in regard to the payment of instructors was identical (a part of it from the pupils), the majority of the children did not participate in the advantages of either subject. Singing was, however, more popular than drawing. In 1871, it was taught in 159 schools to 19,305 children, at a cost to parents and the Board of £3,364 10s. 3d. Like its companion art, it was omitted from the course of free instruction, and no provision was made for subsidizing the instructors. Like drawing, also, it was soon rehabilitated, and, in fact, placed in a better position than it had had under the Board of Education, being made a free subject. Visiting teachers received payment, their salaries ranging from £250 to £400; and qualified members of the ordinary staff who taught the subject were paid a bonus.

In 1878, Mr. (afterwards Dr.) Summers was appointed Inspector of Music. He and the senior singing masters favored "the tonic numeral" system, which is taught in conjunction with the staff notation. Classes for teachers were held, the students of the Training Institution being under the instruction of Mr. W. R. Furlong; and a good number of teachers became qualified, year by year, to teach the subject.

In 1885, it became one of the requirements that suitable school songs should be taught in all classes, if not by note, then by ear; and, in schools of the first, second, third, and fourth classes, all the pupils above the second class had to be taught both by

theory and practice wherever the services of qualified teachers were available. The advocates of the sol-fa method of teaching singing succeeded, about this time, in having it placed on an equal footing with other methods.

In 1889, there were 34 visiting teachers, and 103 members of the ordinary staff were employed in giving instruction in their own schools.

In the early nineties, an ardent advocate of the sol-fa system, a very capable musician and teacher, Dr. S. McBurney, was appointed, on the resignation of Dr. Summers, to instruct teachers' classes and inspect singing in the schools.

As with the teachers of drawing, so with those of singing: they lost their position in 1893, and had to form classes, the pupils of which paid a small fee for instruction. As singing had been included in the work prescribed for the examinations of pupil teachers and for the Certificate of Competency in 1890, the number of teachers capable of carrying on the work has increased from year to year, and good results are now obtained in most Victorian schools.

Manual Training.—In the last report Mr. John Dennant, F.G.S., wrote as a district inspector (dated 6/9/94), he refers to the fact that the technical schools had commenced manual-training classes for boys. "Ultimately, perhaps," he goes on to remark, "these on similar lines will be added to all our large schools." His words came true. Before the end of the century, the introduction of manual training into the course of instruction was being effected. The Department (Mr. James Bagge being Secretary and permanent head, and Mr. Alexander Stewart Inspector-General) issued, in 1899, a circular prescribing certain hand-and-eye occupations. The Royal Commission on Technical Education strongly condemned the action of issuing such instructions to teachers ignorant of what they were required to carry out, and recommended that an expert instructor in

manual training should be obtained from England to train teachers and organize the work. Out of many suitable candidates for the position, an excellent choice was made when Mr. John Byatt, a teacher in the service of the London School Board, was selected. Mr. Byatt arrived in May, 1900, and soon revealed to hundreds of eager teachers the mysteries of paper-work, cardboard modelling, and sloyd wood-work. The results of his skilful and thorough teaching are to-day manifest in numerous schools throughout the State.

Drill.—The Board of Education bestowed attention on drill, and, in addition to requiring proficiency in class drill, paid qualified instructors for teaching military drill, and the subject was included in the free-list in the 1872 Act.

In 1874, it was announced that the Minister intended to adopt a thorough system of drill in schools. A syllabus was drawn up and sent to schools. It was followed by the issue of a Drill Manual; and classes were established. The subject was taught at the Training College. For many years, Sergeant-Major Wallace, whom all delighted to honor as one who had been through the Crimean War, used to put the trainees through their facings, and march them up and down the gravelled yard till they were tempted to cry, "Hold, enough!" but dare not.

In large centers, such as Melbourne, Ballarat, and Castlemaine, attempts were made in the seventies to drill boys in battalions; but no concerted action was taken to systematize military drill until Sir Frederick Sargood,* who had been a strong advocate of the establishment of detachments of boys in schools, became Minister of Defence in 1884. The time was opportune; a committee representing schools—State and secondary—was formed; a uniform was adopted;

*It was Sir Frederick who first took active measures to supply all the State schools with a Union Jack. He formed a committee to carry out the project in 1900.

a supply of light, small-bore rifles (the Francotte) was obtained; and it was not long before cadet corps were to be found in scores of schools. Colonel D. L. Henry was appointed Inspector of Military Drill, and classes for officers, which were largely attended, were established in the principal towns. Most of the inspectors of schools qualified as officers, prominent among whom were Majors W. M. Gamble and F. C. Eddy.

In June, 1906, the system of cadet corps in schools under the regulations issued in 1885 gave place to another organized by the Commonwealth Defence Department.

One may safely say that, in a cadet corps, many a Victorian boy learnt how to answer the call of duty to king and country, was imbued with a right ideal of discipline, and gained some knowledge of soldiering, the results of which were apparent in the South African War of 1899-1901, and in the world struggle of 1914-1918.

Gymnastics.—The framers of the 1872 Act, recognizing the value of systematic exercise for bodily development, associated gymnastics with drill in the course of free instruction.

The Department, following the practice of the Board, offered a bonus of £10 a year to any qualified instructor to teach it, provided that he had the necessary apparatus in his school. Instruction for teachers was available at the National Gymnasium (near the East Melbourne Cricket Ground), with which the name of Mr. Gustav Techow is associated with a feeling akin to admiration by many to the present day. The expense of the apparatus and the danger of accidents prevented instruction in the subject from ever being popular in the elementary schools; and, when the bonus was abolished in March, 1893, gymnastics with apparatus under the teacher's direction almost disappeared. The Department required, however,

that a suitable course of physical drill should be carried out in all schools.

Health and Temperance.—The necessity for some æsthetic training in the course of free instruction having been supplied by the inclusion of singing and drawing, the next addition had reference to the care of the body. In 1878, wall-sheets were sent to schools, illustrating methods of resuscitating a person apparently drowned and of treating a case of snake-bite; and teachers had to give lessons on these matters. The next year, owing to the representations of the Australian Health Society, the giving of a certain amount of instruction on fresh air, food, cleanliness, clothing, and the like was also prescribed.

The Education Act passed in November, 1889, contained a section that had an important bearing upon the happiness and prosperity of the community in the time to come. It ran thus: "The secular instruction to be given in every State school shall, in the case of children over nine years of age, include the teaching of lessons from some recognized lesson-books on the laws of health and from some recognized temperance lesson-books."

Though supplies of the books by Drs. Richardson and Ridge had been sent to schools some time previously to aid teachers in giving temperance lessons, yet it was felt that a manual containing the knowledge they should possess concerning both health matters and temperance should also be furnished. The Inspector-General (Mr. T. Brodribb), who had, during his career, displayed keen interest in such topics, was commissioned by the Minister to write a book embodying what would be helpful to teachers, and Dr. J. W. Springthorpe, the lecturer on hygiene at the Melbourne University, was asked to contribute chapters on disinfection and ambulance work. The book *A Manual of Health and Temperance*, was published in 1892, and did a great deal to improve the teaching of those topics.

Morals and Manners.—The inspectors' conference, held in February, 1884, pronounced strongly in favor of requiring teachers to give periodical and systematic lessons on the conduct of life, and to train their pupils in the rules of courtesy by means of a definite course of instruction. The subject, "morals and manners," was put into the course of instruction, and a text-book was recommended and placed in the hands of teachers. The book contained lessons on honesty, obedience, tidiness, and the like. The subject-matter was placed under headings and arranged in columns. The lessons were very formal and lacking in life. The subject had no attraction, was difficult to acquire, and failed to interest the teachers. It was dropped in 1891—a failure, owing to the lack of such a method of treatment as Mr. F. J. Gould has worked out during the past twenty years with so much industry and skill.

Needlework.—This necessary acquirement for women was emphasized in the Act of 1872 by the use of synonyms: "Sewing and needlework in addition for girls." The syllabus set out in the first regulation was brief but comprehensive, and three hours a week was the usual time-table allowance for the subject. For many years, Miss E. Trickett taught the subject at the Training College, and taught it well; the requirements for the examinations were sufficiently exacting; and many of the inspectors (tutored by their wives) were good judges of sewing. The authorities were content, and did not think that a woman inspector was needed. However, wiser counsels have since prevailed, and the Department has now its Organizer of Needlework (Mrs. H. Olive Storer).

Swimming.—Naturally, boys and girls desire to learn to swim, and one of the early Ministers of the Department, recognizing that the desire should be satisfied, instructed the architect to prepare a plan of a swimming-bath that might be constructed at large

schools. No bath was constructed; but several boards of advice and head teachers caused classes to be formed from time to time for the teaching of swimming. Nothing systematic was done till early in 1898, when the Victorian Amateur Swimming Association waited upon the Minister (the Hon. A. J. Peacock) and pointed out how swimming clubs might be formed in connexion with schools, and, the public baths being used for the purpose of instruction, little expense need be incurred. At a meeting of teachers called to consider the matter (with Mr. G. H. Carter as Chairman and Mr. A. Hanson as Secretary), the idea of establishing classes in the way suggested was heartily endorsed. There were in the first season (1898) 21 boys' clubs (with a membership of 1,795) and 16 girls' clubs (with a membership of 1,000). The movement was popular, clubs increased in number, demonstrations and competitions were held, and teachers' classes were formed. In 1910, Miss May Cox was appointed Organizer of Swimming.

Kindergarten.—In 1887, a course of lectures by Mrs. Goulden on the kindergarten system was given in Melbourne on Saturday mornings for the benefit of women teachers desirous of undertaking the work; and, shortly afterwards, a beginning was made to teach the infants of some of the metropolitan schools in accordance with the system. Several young teachers were trained also to spread a knowledge of it in other centers of population, and good progress was made. In the regulations issued in 1890, it was stated that, in the first class, where practicable, appropriate and varied occupations (for example, kindergarten) would be expected. Two or three years later, retrenchment caused a discontinuance of the work. When the period of depression had passed, the Department felt that the time had arrived for extending considerably the knowledge of the principles underlying kindergarten practice. As a commencement, instructions prescribing "varied occupations

for infant classes'' were issued in 1899. The Royal Commission on Technical Education, which soon afterwards commenced its sittings, took the view that such an instruction should not have been issued till teachers had been trained to do the work, and recommended the appointment of an organizer. The result was that Miss Eva Hooper arrived from England in April, 1900, under engagement to the Department for a term of years. She held classes in kindergarten and used the columns of the *Education Gazette and Teachers' Aid* to such effect that the system soon became familiar, and, under the direction of Miss E. Pye and Miss A. Wallis at the Teachers' College, has made progress ever since.

Cookery.—In 1888, Dr. Pearson being Minister, instruction in cookery was given to the senior girls in some of the Melbourne and suburban schools by Miss M. J. Pearson and Mrs. F. Smith. In 1891, classes were conducted in twelve schools, and, in 1892, in eleven. But it costs money to teach cookery; and, in 1893, there was no money with which to continue the work in the elementary schools, many or few.

When the opportunity came to restore the subject to its proper place in a course of instruction for girls, it was seized. In 1899, a cookery center was established at the Queensberry-street School, Carlton. It was under the highly capable direction of Mrs. A. Fawcett Story, who, when teaching cookery in New South Wales, had been induced to transfer her services to Victoria by the terms the Minister (the Hon. A. J. Peacock) was able to offer. At the Queensberry-street Cookery Center, training was given to drafts of girls from several of the metropolitan schools, and twelve teachers were selected to undergo a thorough course of instruction in domestic economy and cookery. When they had shown themselves to be qualified, they were placed in charge of other centers, and Mrs. Story, as Directress of Cookery, exercised general control and supervision over them.

When Mrs. Story retired, the work of training was entrusted to Miss Flora Pell, who carried it on with pronounced success at the Melbourne High School. Expansion has taken place. There are now between 60 and 70 cookery centers under the control of the Education Department, several schools of domestic arts, and a College of Domestic Economy.

EXTRA SUBJECTS.

The Act of 1872 made it necessary for parents who desired for their children more than an education in the "three R's" to pay for it. That there might be no neglect of the necessary subjects by teachers desirous of augmenting their incomes by fees, the first regulation issued stipulated that "instruction in extra subjects (those not included in the first schedule of the Act) must not be given so as to interrupt the 'course of instruction'." They had to be taken outside the four hours the Act required. The regulations also laid it down that no fee was to exceed a shilling a week, and that the amount of the fee for each subject was to be determined by the Minister as the occasion might arise.

In the next set of regulations, the Minister gave a list of the extra subjects and the fee to be charged for each—a shilling a week for Latin and French; sixpence for Euclid, algebra, and trigonometry; threepence for mensuration, book-keeping, and the elements of natural science. In the first regulations, there was a clause to the effect that one-fourth of the amount received by the teacher of a subject would be deducted and distributed among the teachers of extra subjects on the principle of payment by results. This clumsy expedient to encourage a faithful discharge of duty was altered by the next regulation to a withholding of 5 per cent. of the amount received, if the inspector were not satisfied with the instruction.

Mr. G. Wilson Brown, when giving evidence before the Royal Commission in 1882, stated that "he did

not think the teachers showed any great interest in the teaching of extra subjects; it did not pay sufficiently well. The Department, however, encouraged the work." One piece of encouragement was the inclusion of Euclid, algebra, and Latin or French among the subjects of examination for exhibitions—the blue ribbons of the elementary schools. This encouragement was, however, taken away in 1887.

The returns printed from year to year in the Minister's Report show that the Secretary was quite right concerning the lack of interest in the teaching of extra subjects. The Minister wrote in 1876: "It cannot but be regarded as a reproach to any school situated in a populous and thriving locality that the subjects taught in it should be restricted to the course of free instruction, and yet there are many such instances. As notable exceptions to this class may be cited the Melbourne Central School (Mr. Whyte) and the Flinders School,* Geelong (Mr. Lennon), in which the receipts for extra subjects constituted about one-fifth of the total receipts from this source of all the schools in the colony." It is noteworthy that many professional men of to-day received their education when boys in one or other of these schools.

The number of children who received instruction in extra subjects during 1877 was only 6,483. Strange to say, it fluctuated a good deal from year to year. During 1901-2, it was nearly the same as in 1877, namely, 6,112. The extended course of study in elementary schools, the increase in the number of scholarships awarded annually, and the establishment of State secondary schools warranted the withdrawal of authority to teach extra subjects for payment in 1911.

*It was in this school that the well-known and highly-esteemed teacher, Mr. G. F. Link, labored with great success for many years, and ultimately succeeded Mr. Lennon as its head teacher.

EXHIBITIONS AND SCHOLARSHIPS.

In 1870, the Board of Education formulated a scheme for establishing exhibitions from the common schools to the grammar schools and thence to the University. The main clauses of the regulation issued the following year may be thus summarized: (1) Exhibitions to eight scholars of common schools, the age of candidates to be under 15 years; (2) the subjects of examination to be the work of the upper-sixth class, and Euclid, algebra, Latin or French; (3) the exhibition to be of the value of £35 per annum, tenable for six years.

The first examination was held in December, 1871. There were 66 competitors, of whom the following were the successful ones in order of merit: James Wilson (Flinders School, Geelong), Robert G. Field (ditto), Philip Muskett (Spring Street, Melbourne—the Melbourne Central or Model School), James T. Hackett (ditto), Ernest H. Swan (ditto), Frederick Eddy (Hoddle Street, Melbourne), John King (Flinders School), Francis Rennick (Spring Street). (Mr. Swan became a teacher, and Messrs. Eddy and Rennick teachers, and, ultimately, inspectors of schools.)

In 1880, eleven exhibitions were awarded, one of them for the first time to a girl (Miss Annie Rohs); and this number was maintained as long as the original plan of granting exhibitions was in force.

Professor Pearson, when a Commissioner in 1877, saw clearly that it was an anomaly for the State wholly to maintain elementary schools and subsidize the University, while making, at the same time, no attempt worthy of the name to bridge over the gulf that separated the two. When he became Minister in charge of the Education Department, he took the opportunity of providing a remedy—the next best to that of establishing State high schools (a difficult thing to do at the time)—in the form of a system of scholarships on such a liberal scale and so devised that clever girls and boys from all parts of the

colony might participate in its advantages. Under it, 200 scholarships of the annual value of £10, tenable at an approved secondary school, were awarded; and it was provided that successful candidates who did not reside within an accessible distance of an approved school might have their scholarships commuted for others tenable for one year, and of the value of £40. One hundred and fourteen scholarships were allotted to each inspectorate, and the balance was thrown open to all the schools of the colony. The first examination was held at the end of 1886, when 313 candidates sat.

In 1887, the subjects of examination for exhibitions were restricted to those of the free course of instruction, and the age-limit of competitors was reduced to 14 years. Thus the examination for the less valuable prizes, the scholarships, was of the same character as the more valuable, the exhibitions. A rearrangement was consequently made. The old scheme of exhibitions from the elementary schools gave place to exhibitions awarded to a certain number of the scholarship-holders at the end of their course to help them through the University. The value of the exhibition was raised to £40, the number to 12, and, for the examination, six of the subjects prescribed for matriculation were to be taken. The first examination under the new regulation was held in January, 1890.

The number of scholarships was reduced in 1891, and thrown open to competition without restriction to districts, it being found that, of the successful candidates, not a few had obtained low marks—an indication that they were not sufficiently prepared to continue their studies with success at a secondary school. There was, next year, a further reduction to 75; and the grave necessity for retrenchment caused, in 1893, the discontinuance of the system altogether.

In 1894, the offers of several of the leading secondary schools to grant scholarships on somewhat similar lines to those that the Department had been fol-

lowing were accepted, the arrangements for carrying out the examination being undertaken by the Department. The aggregate value of those offered in 1896 was said to be about £5,000.

The competitions for exhibitions between the scholarship-holders were continued from year to year, first among those who held Government scholarships, and, later, among the holders of those given by the secondary schools.

In 1900, the Hon. C. Carty Salmon was able to announce that his Department had decided to reintroduce Government scholarships, that 60 would be awarded annually, and the first examination would be held in December, 1900. No withdrawal has occurred since, but rather an extension of the facilities for the clever and diligent to secure help from the public purse whereby to acquire higher education.

The exhibition and scholarship lists of the Department contain the names of many men and women who are well-known to-day to the public as eminent in the civil service, the professions, and in business. The country is reaping the fruits of the sacrifice that it made in the past.

SCRIPTURAL INSTRUCTION.

A Royal Commission on Education, presided over by that able writer, statesman, and jurist—Mr. George Higinbotham—made, in 1867, a recommendation in favor of the establishment of public schools from which sectarian teaching should be excluded by express legislative enactment, and in which religious teaching should be in like manner sanctioned and encouraged. When an Education Bill embodying this recommendation came before the House, it met with protest from quarters where its sponsor did not expect opposition, and he withdrew it. Mr. Higinbotham having failed to effect a cure for sectarian rivalries that caused a waste of public money and interfered with the proper provision of facilities for education, the Francis Ministry, interpreting, as it

believed, the opinion of the majority, provided, in its Act of 1872, for secular instruction within clearly defined hours, and offered facilities for Scriptural instruction outside those hours. Mr. Stephen stated that the effect would be "to end the denominational system." To be more precise, the Bill directed that "no State-school teacher shall give any other than secular instruction in any State-school building," and assigned to boards of advice, as one of their duties, "to direct, with the approval of the Minister, what use shall be made of school-buildings after the children are dismissed from school or on days when no school is held therein."

There were in use in the schools at the time a series of reading-books issued by the Irish National Board. These contained lessons on Scripture history (not extracts from the Scriptures), and, when it was moved in the Legislative Council that the term "secular" should be held to include general religious teaching as distinguished from dogmatic and polemical theology, the motion was lost by two votes, the members having been assured that these Scripture lessons would be continued. There is evidence, too, that the public also thought that that would be the case.

About five years later, however, Nelson's *Royal Readers* (which contained no Scripture history) were substituted for the Irish National Board's reading-books. It was not long before representatives of the Jews objected to the Christian references in some of the articles and poems, and the Minister of Public Instruction (the Hon. Robert Ramsay) ordered such references to be deleted. This was done. When the Secretary for Public Instruction (Mr. J. Wilson Brown) was asked by a Royal Commission in 1882, "Is there any moral teaching in any of the schools?" his reply was, "Nothing special beyond what is contained in the reading lessons and the lessons that may be got from them; no special moral lessons beyond that. The morality standard of the school depends

upon the moral standard of the particular teacher. There is no standard based upon religious teaching.”

The Hon. James Service, who, while Premier, administered the Education Department from March, 1883, to April, 1884, considered that the interpretation placed upon the secular section of the Act by some of his predecessors had been a strained one. In a public speech, he said: “I have no objection—I don’t think any of you have—to the religion of practice being taught in our schools. We have no objection to mottoes being placed on the walls, such as ‘Remember thy Creator in the days of thy youth,’ ‘Do unto others as you would they should do to you,’ ‘Pure and undefiled religion is to visit the fatherless and widows in their distress.’ The practice of honor, honesty, truthfulness, uprightness, doing your duty to your neighbors—these are the things that every one of us want our children to be taught.”

The Royal Commission on Education 1881-1884 was for a time under the chairmanship of Mr. J. Warrington Rogers and then of Mr. J. M. Templeton, and two reports were presented on the “religious difficulty.” Both recommended that provision should be made in the school curriculum for religious instruction of a non-sectarian character. No legislative action followed; and, when, on the recommendation of an inspectors’ conference, a textbook on morals was sent to the schools, the teachers were instructed that their lessons were not to be illustrated (in the way that the author had intended) by Bible examples and precepts.

The boards of advice very properly took an interest in this great question of moral teaching. At a conference held in 1886, the following resolution was passed: “In consequence of the ignorance manifested by many of the children in State schools of the most elementary religious truths, it is desired that the Irish National Scripture books—books of extracts

from the Bible sanctioned for use in the national schools of Ireland by Archbishop Whately [Anglican] and Archbishop Murray [Roman Catholic]—be taught with the ordinary school work, any scholar whose parents have a conscientious objection to such teaching to be allowed to leave the room during the lesson.” But the wishes of the boards of advice produced no more effect on Parliament than the recommendations of the commission had done.

The strange attitude of indifference that a Christian community presented when it permitted the children’s reading-books to be Christless was altered by the action of Sir Bryan O’Loghlen, who moved, in the Assembly, the following motion on the 18th of May, 1892: “This House views with deep sorrow and disapproval the continuance of the absence of the name of our Lord and Saviour from the State school-books, and directs the Minister of Public Instruction to provide for the issue, in future, of such books with the expunged passages referring to His name restored.” There was some debate, mostly in favor of the motion, and, objection being raised to the word “directs,” Sir Bryan altered it to “requests.” The motion as amended was accepted by the Minister of Public Instruction (the Hon. A. J. Peacock) and carried without a division.

A few years later, the Department took a step to remove more completely the extreme secularism of the reading matter by printing one of the Psalms of David in *The School Paper* each month. After two or three had appeared, the Roman Catholic Archbishop (Dr. Carr) wrote a letter of protest to the Minister, and the practice was discontinued.

The question of Scriptural instruction, however, was not allowed to drop, and the Hon. Alfred Deakin—a statesman who had many of the attributes of his great predecessor, Higinbotham—viewing the position as that gentleman had done, moved in October, 1898, as follows: “In the opinion of this House, the

State system of Education should provide for elementary unsectarian education." A decision by the House was avoided by the appointment of a Royal Commission to consist of the "heads of the various religious denominations in order to suggest what religious instruction should be taught in our schools." There were 14 representatives of the denominations. The Roman Catholic body did not send one, and the Jewish Rabbi withdrew after a time from the commission. A report, embodying what had been asked for and agreed to unanimously, was presented to Parliament; but no action followed. That was towards the end of 1900; and, though the advocates of Scriptural instruction in schools have not been idle, the matter is now (1922) where it was then, except that the facilities for people, other than State-school teachers, to use school-buildings for the purpose of giving such instruction have been extended.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

Mr. T. Brodribb appears to have been one of the pioneers, if not *the* pioneer, among the officers of the Department to aim at grafting technical training upon the State-school system. In the annual report that he wrote in July, 1880, he mentions having previously made reports on technical studies, and outlines a method of fostering them in Victoria. He concludes by saying: "Already we have among us the groundwork of three valuable technical schools in the Industrial Museum and the mining schools of Ballarat and Sandhurst [now Bendigo], institutions which would do a great work for Victoria, could they but receive from the public fitting recognition and more generous support." Again, in his annual report, of 1882, he remarks on his having been instructed to report on the mining schools at Ballarat and Sandhurst, and comments on the fact that the grant of £4,000 annually voted towards their maintenance as being expended without State supervision or control of any kind. He also makes reference to the efforts

of Mr. Francis Ormond to establish a Working Men's College in Melbourne [which resulted in the opening in 1887 of that great institution of to-day].

Owing mainly to the rapidly increasing amount granted by Parliament year by year to assist to build and maintain schools of science and art, Dr. Pearson, in the late eighties, considered that his Department should exercise a more systematic oversight than that of sending an inspector occasionally to the schools. He required that, when a grant was made in aid of maintenance, the objects and general work of the school, with the proposed course of instruction, should be submitted to the Department for approval; and that a similar course should be adopted with regard to the plans of the buildings when a grant in aid of their erection was solicited. Following up this idea, he gave instructions that Mr. G. G. Simpson (the Department's Art Inspector) and Mr. J. Dennant, F.G.S. (an inspector of schools with a taste for science) should make periodical reports at comparatively short intervals.

It is not to be wondered at that the Hon. A. J. Peacock, representing a mining constituency (Creswick), and knowing well the fine work the Ballarat School of Mines (opened in January, 1871) was doing, should have treated, in his first Annual Report as Minister of Public Instruction, at greater length than any of his predecessors the subject of technical education. In reviewing what had been done in the way of helping the schools that had been established in various centers of population, he wrote: "The grants made in aid of technical instruction have, during the past few years, amounted to a very large sum, being in all (up to 30th June, 1892) no less than £65,800 for the erection of buildings, and £120,135 19s. 8d. for maintenance. This aid was given in the case of art schools by means of a capita-tion payment of so much per quarter, according to a prescribed minimum attendance; but the science

schools, which, for the most part, taught science and general branches of education, received each a separate lump sum voted directly by Parliament." He did not like the practice, and issued an instruction that the State grants should bear some fair proportion to the value of the work done; that subsidies should be based on attendance and the results of examinations. A few years later, however, the regulations under which payments were made on capitation and result examinations were superseded by others providing for the payment of a definite sum annually to each school, this amount being liable to reduction on the receipt of an adverse report on the school.

The establishment of a technical school in a community was no trivial matter, for it meant some self-sacrifice; but still, even through the depressing years of the last decade of the century, such schools increased in number. At the end of 1900, Victoria had 18, four of which afforded instruction in science, art, and trade subjects, five in art and science, two in art and trade, while five schools confined their attention to art, and two others to science only.

CHAPTER XVI.

AGENCIES THAT INFLUENCED THE DEVELOPMENT OF VICTORIA'S SYSTEM OF EDUCATION.

Boards of Advice.—Under the *Common Schools Act 1862*, there was a local committee for each school. That committee had had a great deal to do in connexion with the school—it had had to raise half the amount required for the buildings, to choose a teacher, arrange about the rate of fees, and see that the attendance was maintained to a degree that would permit of the school's being kept open.

The framers of the Act of 1872 evidently felt that it would be desirable to disperse these committees, otherwise they might give trouble by wanting to exercise some of the powers that the Act would take away. Mr. Stephen, in the course of his speech, said: "A good deal of difficulty has been felt as to what was best to do in the way of local supervision, and, after much deliberation, our decision is to establish boards of advice. To sever such boards, to a certain extent, from particular schools, we propose to divide the country into districts, each containing several schools conveniently situated together to be placed under one board. . . . They will be appointed for three years by the Governor in Council."

In its passage through the Legislative Council, election was substituted for nomination. It was provided by the Act that the boards were to consist of no fewer than five nor more than seven members. Persons entitled to vote were to be ratepayers.

The duties of the boards provided by the Act were as follow: (1) To direct with the approval of the Minister what use shall be made of the school-buildings after the children are dismissed from school or on days when no school is held therein; (2) to suspend any school teacher for misconduct and report the cause of such suspension to the Minister; (3) to report on the condition of the school, as to the premises and their condition, whether new schools are required, and as to books, furniture, gymnastic appliances, or other requirements; (4) to visit the schools from time to time, and to record the number of children present and their opinion as to the general condition and management of the school; (5) to use every endeavor to induce parents to send their children regularly to school, to compare the attendance of children at school with the roll for the school district, and to report the names of parents who fail or refuse to educate their children or to send them to school; and (6) to recommend the payment by the Education Department of school fees or the grant of a scholarship or exhibition in the case of any child displaying unusual ability.

In June, 1873, boards to the number of 280 or thereabouts were elected and commenced work, but in somewhat different ways. Many furnished the press with reports of their proceedings; other admitted reporters. Some boards, not waiting for the Department to make a census, determined that each member should collect a statistical return, in allotted divisions of the district, of all parents residing therein and the names and ages of their children under 15 years of age. Several boards announced that no charge against the teacher, pupil, or parent should be entertained unless submitted in writing.

A lack of harmony, however, began to manifest itself between the boards and the Department; for

example, the Emerald Hill Board adjourned *sine die*, assigning as a reason that there did not appear to be any necessity for the board's meeting until the Department evinced a desire to obtain advice or co-operation. A pressman endeavored to pour oil on the troubled waters by writing to the following effect: "The boards of advice are daily proving more and more beneficial to the country. They are looking after the details, seeing that the out-offices, tanks, playing grounds, etc., are in order; and, if they will only do such work thoroughly and not desire to usurp the work entrusted to the Minister, their position will become, day by day, more and more assured."

The boards made a good move in 1879, by holding, in the Melbourne Town Hall, a conference of delegates. Mr. J. M. Templeton was elected to preside over its sittings, and Mr. W. H. Leonard was appointed secretary. They sat for four days, and their resolutions show knowledge and judgment. Among the things they desired was the registration of private schools, the teaching of morals and manners, the issue of transfer-notes to children leaving one school for another, more expedition to be shown in effecting petty repairs, and a radical change in the mode of conducting night schools or their abolition. Many annual conferences of this kind were held, and, through them, public opinion and Departmental action were influenced.

In the years of plenty, Dr. Pearson arranged that, to each board, an allowance with which to effect repairs to the school-buildings should be made.

As the years went by, it became true, as one paper averred, that "so satisfied are the public and the parents of scholars with the general working of the Education Department that they take no interest whatever in the election, or in the operations, of the boards of advice."

By and by, it was considered that the functions and the powers exercised by the boards would be more effectively discharged by local committees, thus centralizing the interest of parents in the school life of their children while fostering local pride in the school. Instead, therefore, of 381 boards, comprising about 2,000 members, more than 2,300 school committees with 15,000 members came into being in 1911.

Teachers' Associations.—Teachers, after the passing of the 1872 Act, found a cause to bring them together in their desire to secure as much remuneration from the Department as they had been in receipt of under the Board. After the passing of the *Public Service Act 1883*, the publication of the first Classified Roll in 1885, and the issue of a new course of instruction in the same year, there were many questions on which teachers wished to present their views as a body to the Department, and many associations (the State School Teachers' Union combining them all through their representatives) were formed. Causes were won, concessions granted, testimonials presented by the grateful rank and file to the leaders, and then the associations faded away, to come again, however, in the years of retrenchment with renewed strength, under different leaders and with changed objectives. Efforts were, no doubt, made to regain lost status and remuneration; but the main efforts were directed, as they had not been previously, to professional culture, the enhancement of the teacher in public estimation, and the uplift of education. The names of some of these associations have been given in another article; but the readers of papers at the first "Annual Educational Congress"—a congress held under the auspices of the State School Teachers' Union of Victoria in the Athenæum Hall, Melbourne, on the 19th of April, 1895, should be recorded here. The Hon.

A. J. Peacock opened the congress with an address. He was followed by Mr. Frank Tate on "The Training of Teachers," Professor T. G. Tucker on "The Permanent Residuum of Education," Mr. H. F. Rix on "Bad Beginnings in Education," Dr. Charles Strong on "Ideals of Education," Mr. C. R. Long on "Practical Aims in State Education," Professor Laurie on "The Teaching of Morality in State Schools," Mr. G. Maxwell on "Scripture Reading in State Schools: A Necessity," and Mr. C. Blanchard on "Singing in State Schools." Books and educational aids were on exhibition in the rooms adjacent to the hall. There were crowded audiences throughout the sittings, and the utmost interest was taken in the proceedings. In addition to the annual congress, a dozen or more associations throughout the colony held meetings for the reading of papers as well as for the consideration of grievances.

A valuable accompaniment to the study of education is the study of literature. As an extension to the literature class conducted by Mr. F. Tate at the Training College was the State School Teachers' Literary Society that commenced its meetings in a central room in the city in 1893. Old students of the college and others who had not been students gathered in strong force month after month. Among those prominent as contributors of papers, etc., were Misses Robertson, Hambleton, Douglas, Monekton, Laing, and Messrs. R. V. Faravoni, W. M. Rowe, J. H. Betheras, C. R. Long, A. H. Williams, G. Mackay, W. R. Furlong, and Mr. G. Moore. Mr. Faravoni was the secretary for many years.

Work in education and literature of the kind described above went on for several years, and helped to pave the way to the new era in education that commenced with the new century.

Exhibitions of School Aids and School Work.—The hours when schools are open are not favorable for

visiting, and it is desirable, therefore, to bring collections of children's work together in places where they can be readily seen and comparisons made at more convenient times.

The Department is to be credited with making a good use of the International Exhibition held in Melbourne in 1881. A feature of its exhibit was the country school-buildings with residences and everything complete. For the Centennial Exhibition, seven years later, a greater effort still was made. In the Educational Court, exhibits were arranged from Victoria and from various countries and the neighboring colonies to illustrate their systems of instruction. Additional interest was given by having model class-rooms in which teaching was carried on during the afternoons.

Mr. C. R. Long, when Training Master in Melbourne in the middle nineties, helped the forward movement to develop public interest in education by showing collections of specimens for object lessons, aids to teaching, and the like, at exhibitions held at Ballarat, Bendigo, and Warrnambool.

Teachers' Papers.—As a factor in developing Victoria's system of education, too much credit cannot be given to the editors of the *Australasian Schoolmaster* (for a time in the eighties, Professor E. E. Morris, and, later, the Rev. William Potter). It succeeded *The Teacher*,* and its first number was published in July, 1879. In the nineties, the *Education News*, the organ of the Melbourne Head Teachers' Association, like the *Schoolmaster*, aided every progressive movement.

In July, 1900, the Department began the issue of a monthly paper of its own, the *Education Gazette and Teachers' Aid*. The editorship was entrusted to Mr.

*We should much like to see a copy of this publication, which (we understand) had a precarious existence.

C. R. Long. This publication has very much facilitated every forward effort. It enables the administrative officers, inspectors, and others to reach the teachers of every school with direction and advice speedily and economically.

Special Reports.—The official reports of officers who visit other countries have often an important educative influence. There were but few in the period under review. Mr. Brodribb's, in 1887, on "Public Instruction in New South Wales," and Messrs. Main and Topp's "Inquiry into the Educational System of Victoria, New South Wales, and South Australia" in the following year, have already been mentioned as bearing upon the effects of the result system. The Rev. R. Wilde, one of His Majesty's inspectors of schools in England, who visited Victoria while the Centennial Exhibition was open, wrote an interesting report on the Victorian system of Education, in the course of which he condemned the result system. Another visitor to the exhibition, M. Buisson, inspector of schools under the French Government, contributed, about the same time, an appreciative article to the *Revue Pédagogique*. Mr. Alexander Stewart, in the middle nineties, made an inquiry into the teaching of the Scripture in New South Wales.

Commissions.—Reference must be made also to the commissions that sat during the same period. There were five of them.

Dr. Pearson, with no assistant except his secretary (Mr. A. T. Lewis LL.B., afterwards appointed an inspector of schools), presented a report in 1878 that was worth the £1,000 paid for it, but produced no result of consequence at the time. Some of the fruits of Dr. Pearson's investigations were gathered, however, during his period as Minister of Public Instruction (13/2/86 to 5/11/90).

There is a huge tome containing the reports and minutes of evidence of the Royal Commission on Education 1881-1884, first under the presidency of

Mr. J. Warrington Rogers, and later, owing to his elevation to the bench in Tasmania, under that of Mr. J. M. Templeton. On the teaching of Scripture in State schools, the commissioners were equally divided. During its sittings, the *Public Service Bill* was passed, but how much its provisions were influenced by the reports of the commission, it would not be easy to gauge.

The third commission was on technical education. It had 13 sittings (with Dr. Pearson as president) in 1888, and sent in a brief report early in the following year.

There was a commission appointed in 1900 for the purpose of suggesting what religious instruction should be given in the State schools of Victoria. It was presided over by Bishop Henry A. Langley, and did a large amount of good work, but no legislation followed to carry out its recommendations.

In the preceding year, a commission that was productive of visible results was appointed, namely, the Commission on Technical Education, consisting of the Hon. Theodore Fink (President), Dr. (now Sir John) Macfarland (the Master of Ormond College), and Messrs. J. G. Barrett (the secretary at one time of the Trades Hall Council), H. C. Jenkins (a metallurgist engaged in England by the Department of Mines), C. R. Long (an inspector of schools), F. W. Poolman (a business man), and H. W. Potts (of the Agriculture Department). The secretary was Mr. W. J. Skewes (of the Education Department). The reasons that caused the Ministry of the day—the Turner Ministry, in which the Hon. A. J. Peacock was Minister of Public Instruction—to appoint a commission were many. After the death of Mr. Charles Tynan, M.A., LL.M., in August, 1896, Mr. James Bagge—an able officer, keen and quick, but without any experience as an inspector or teacher—was appointed Secretary and permanent head, with

Mr. Alexander Stewart (who, through a long career as teacher, inspector, and administrator, had done splendid service, but was now advanced in years) as Inspector-General. Now that prosperity was rapidly returning after the depression, it was recognized that much leeway in education, the state of which had been caused by the clamor of Parliament and press for drastic retrenchment, had to be recovered. The press reported day by day the forward movements that teachers and some of the school inspectors were making, but looked in vain to see the chief administrative officers in the van. The public lost confidence in the administration of the Department; and the only course was, as the Government saw, to have the whole school system overhauled by a body of men who had shown themselves students of education or some phase of it.

The commission began to take evidence on the 30th of June, 1899, and signed its final report on the 30th of August, 1901. Many references to its recommendations will be found in Part III. of this volume.



HON. THEODORE FINK.



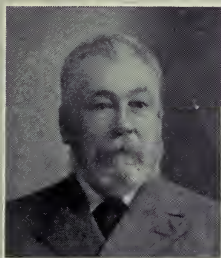
MR. C.R. LONG



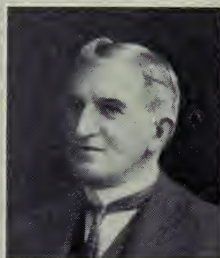
MR. W.H. NICHOLLS



MR. CHARLES McLEAN



MR. H.R. BASTOW



MR. J. HOCKING

Mr. Fink, President Technical Education Commission. Mr. Long, Editor "The School Paper." Mr. Nicholls, first elected Classifier; and Mr. McLean, the present one. Mr. Bastow, the first Architect for the Department. Mr. Hocking, Principal of the Melbourne High School.



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PART III.

UNDER A MINISTER OF THE CROWN,
SECOND PERIOD (1901 TO THE PRESENT DAY),
A DIRECTOR THE PERMANENT HEAD.

*By Dr. John Smyth, Professor of Education,
University of Melbourne, and Principal of the
Teachers' College, Education Department,
Victoria.*

CHAPTER XVII.

THE ROYAL COMMISSION ON TECHNICAL EDUCATION—1899-1901.

Interpretation of the Commission's Scope.—On the 4th May, 1904, the Hon. Theodore Fink was called before the Legislative Assembly to receive the thanks of the House for the services he had rendered the State in acting as chairman of two royal commissions—the first on technical education, the second on the University of Melbourne. The reports, which are invaluable to the student of the history of education in Victoria, stand as a monument to the knowledge, industry, and capacity of Mr. Fink.

The first commission was formed on the 20th of June, 1899, by the Hon. (now Sir) Alexander Peacock, Minister of Public Instruction, and the final instruction given to it was "generally to recommend what means should be adopted for the better provision of a systematic and graduated course of technical instruction." Among the members were Dr. (now Sir John) MacFarland, then Master of Ormond College, and Mr. C. R. Long, an inspector of schools and the editor of *The School Paper*. The secretary was Mr. W. J. Skewes (now Commonwealth Public Service Inspector).

Five progress reports and a final report were issued by the 30th of August, 1901. Two progress reports deal with the primary system, and three with agri-

cultural education and the extension of the bacteriological laboratory at the University. These reports arrested the attention of educationists in many lands; and the fourth (on the state of agricultural education) won encomiums from Dr. Michael Sadler, the distinguished English author of many valuable educational reports. The scope of the inquiry and method of treatment may be seen from the final report, which, after summarizing the recommendations of the progress reports, and giving a historic and descriptive account of the state and needs of technical education in different countries, made recommendations on the reorganization of the Education Department, continuation schools, industrial education, technical schools, technical art instruction, mining education, commercial education, a central college of domestic economy, private secondary schools, the registration of teachers, a council of education, the College of Pharmacy, the establishment of a lectureship in pedagogy at the University, and the completion of the University mining school.

Although it is easier to make recommendations than to carry them into practice against political opposition and public indifference, this in nowise belittles the work of the commission. Rather let us say that most of the educational reforms of the twenty years which have elapsed since it closed its labors lay within the scope of its recommendations; and that, though, in these years, advances have been made not contemplated by the chairman or the members, some of the developments advocated in the recommendations (such as commercial education, continuation schools, apprenticeship aided by technical instruction, a central college of domestic economy, etc.) are still unattained though constantly striven after.

The value of the recommendations was at once acknowledged by the Education Department. Before the issue of the final report, the chairman was in a position to state that the Department had carried out those relating to the appointment and duties of

organizers in kindergarten and in manual training, to the opening of the Teachers' College, to inspectors' conferences and an increase in their numbers, to staffing, to the use of the *Education Gazette*, to the instruction of teachers in new ideals and new subjects; and that the Minister had promised to abolish the result system. Two important Acts of Parliament passed before the close of 1901 bore witness that the reports had both roused public opinion and formulated it.

To the contention that the commission had given too much attention to the defects of the primary system, the reply was that "technical education, strictly so called, is not a system or method of instruction standing alone." It implies mathematical and scientific ideas and skill in drawing, and also involves linguistic expression; and these ideas, skill, and expression all grow out of and depend on the previous instruction of the primary school. Hence the strength or weakness of the elementary school is reflected in the standard of work which the technical school can or cannot accomplish. Against the "three R's" and charity theories of education, the commission asserts that "the real object of education is the development of intelligence, faculty, and character," and declares that the attempt "to develop material resources without the fullest development of mental resources is to build a house upon the sands."

On the basis thus established, it declares that "the last seven or eight years has been a period of retrogression," and that the Victorian education system "has been, in many important points, seriously impaired." The witnesses included the ablest and most progressive teachers and inspectors, and the evidence is cumulative and convincing.

Recommendations: Primary System, Head and other Officers.—Two causes for the retrogression are set down: 1, The unwise and unstatesmanlike retrenchment in expenditure during the period; and, 2, The inefficient control of the Education Depart-

ment, because of its clerical head. The demand is made for a reversal of policy, and, with it, we have this description of an efficient department under a professional head: "A comprehensive national system must be coherent in its various divisions, and should be elastic enough to permit of constant growth. At the head of such a system should be a man thoroughly in touch with the manifold problems of education, alive to all its developments, conversant with different systems, and of administrative skill to consider the bearing of local conditions to a practical application of modern educational principles."

From the head, the commission passes to the men who are the eyes of the Department. It points out that inspectors should be men of high character and determination, and "should possess special qualifications for the position." Their main responsibility is the "encouraging of, and co-operating with, the teacher in the true education of his pupils." The commission finds that the present staff is "insufficient," that the members are much overworked, that there is "practically no circulation of ideas in the Department," and that the reports of the inspectors are too often "received without attention," or "ignored." It recommends that they report annually, that they hold frequent conferences, that they be free to approve or condemn the Department's policy, and that arrangements be made to vitalize the system by "their periodical exchange."

No words could be more condemnatory of the Department as it then existed than the foregoing; no words could be more laudatory of its teachers than the following: "The teachers are professional workers, who should possess culture and knowledge of the first principles of education, and should have liberty to carry these principles into practice." The commission has no fear that this liberty will be abused. It indicates the work done by the teachers in the years of retrogression in spite of "disabilities and deprivations." Every member of the commission is

impressed with the fact that "the teachers are a body of men that the community may feel proud of." Not only so, but "we are quite satisfied that, with a re-organization of the administrative and inspectorial staff, a class of teachers already exists both capable and willing to assist in reforming our system and at least bringing it up to the level of other countries."

The commission would have the Department listen to the advice of the teachers, would have the suggestions of their conferences embodied in annual reports, and would have the Department aid them through Circulars of Information and through "district libraries."

The importance of the work of the infant mistress receives merited commendation. There is a recommendation that a special kindergarten expert be appointed, and that there be a special course of training and a separate classification for infant teachers.

But how are such inspectors and such teachers to be secured? This is the central and most vital question in every educational system, and the commission was too clear-sighted not to see its importance. It advocated the registration of the teachers of private schools and the establishment of a University lectureship in pedagogy. It denounced the short-sighted policy which had closed the Teachers' College, and advised its re-opening under a principal who had studied abroad. It had no doubt that monitors and pupil teachers "have been increased beyond all reasonable bounds," and that, consequently, the "strength of the teaching power" has been weakened. But, in its investigations and recommendations here, it did not go far enough. If inspectors and teachers were to be men and women of character, of special qualifications, and of that "culture and knowledge of the best principles of education" already spoken of, and if they were to make right use of the freedom of the new time, then arrangements must be made to test, in character and special qualifications, every candidate for teaching, and to impart to him culture, an

understanding of the aims and principles of education, and a training in its practice. The commission did not ascertain that only a few of the Victorian teachers could pass through the Teachers' College, and did not advocate, as it should have done, the abolition of the pupil-teacher system.

Other Recommendations: Primary System.—The commission did great service in demanding the abolition of the system of payment by results, introduced into England in 1862, and soon afterwards into Victoria. This system had made of teaching a mechanical thing, and had given wrong aims and methods to inspector and teacher. Abolished in England in 1895, it was still followed in Victoria in 1899; but the Minister promised its abolition. The way was thus paved for a new curriculum with many more subjects admitting of breadth of treatment in method.

The commission knew that the teachers would not be contented while the block to promotion remained, while salaries were so low, and while staffs were so reduced. It recommended, too, the raising of the number of compulsory attendances, the granting of scholarships, and an extension of scholarships to rural and mining industries. No scholarships had been given since 1893, but the Minister promised the commission that henceforth 50 would be awarded annually by the Government.

Technical and Other Forms of Education.—The greater part of the report on agricultural education does not immediately concern this history of the Education Department. The first two of the concluding recommendations do: 1, That experimental science as the groundwork of agriculture be introduced into the State-school curriculum; 2, that, in the rural schools, the rudiments of agriculture, horticulture, etc., be taught, that school gardens be established, and that teachers should be given special training for this work. We shall see, in subsequent chapters, how all these ends have been pursued, and how much more has been achieved than the commission recommended.

In passing, we may note that the commission's

report helped to secure a veterinary school for the University, and prepared the way for the agricultural faculty and agricultural course in that institution.

The report on all phases of technical education was necessarily exhaustive. It reviews the systems of many progressive countries, and then submits the Victorian system to a systematic examination. The evidence adduced points to lack of direction, supervision, and support on the part of the Department, and a lack of responsibility on the part of some of the local councils. Here are some of the statements:—

“Local administration has not, as a rule, been efficient.” “Examinations in many instances are farcical.” “The issue of certificates is unwise and ill-regulated.” “The system of inspection is of little or no value.” “The present expenditure is absolutely inadequate.” “Teachers are overworked and ill-paid.”

Schools of mines and art schools had been established in wrong centers, the education given had little relation to the needs of the place, and there was no system. Yet, owing to the fierce industrial competition with other countries and the decay of the apprenticeship system, the need for trade and technical education was great. No wiser or more prescient words were written in any of the reports than these: “The advance of every great nation to-day is measured by progress in education. . . .” “Nothing less than the complete provision for the training of all the youths of the country (beyond the State-school period) by such courses of instruction as will provide for skilled and intelligent work in the various departments of our industrial and commercial life should be aimed at.”

Hence, far-reaching changes were advocated. There should be a sub-department of the Education Department for technical education; and, over this, there should be a director, and, under him, inspectors of technical art and technology. The councils should

be appointed by the Governor in Council; and, while other matters might be left to their jurisdiction, teachers and salaries should be the concern of the Department. The Government should assume control of all the technical school-buildings which had been erected by the aid of State funds. Syllabuses and allied matters should be decided by conferences of the director, examiners, inspectors, and teachers. Local interest should not be checked.

The recommendations include industrial, mining, commercial, technical-art, and domestic-art education, and, as in the case of the mining school, reach up to the University itself. They deal with fees, railway passes, scholarships, and certificates. No necessary detail is left untouched. They emphasize the need of continuation classes to link the elementary and the technical school rightly together; and there is a strong plea for a Council of Education which shall keep all progressive movements on education under its purview, shall constantly compare the Victorian system with other systems, and shall regularly advise the Minister on changes and developments.

On reading the reports of this commission, we are impressed by the clearness of its views that education should so develop the individual that he is best prepared for the work of life and for service to the community, and by the strength of its appeal to all thinking people to recognize that "the right kind of education is society's greatest and gravest problem; for, in the last analysis, the school is society shaping itself to its future ends." Its conception of State education is worthy of high praise. It must be said, however, that it did not foresee many developments which have since taken place, such as high schools, medical inspection, and schools for defectives; and that, on some matters, it could have spoken with greater decision, such as on staffing, salaries, and training. But, apart from all defects, there is, in these reports, a clear picture of the state of education at the time, and a comprehensive program of reform.

CHAPTER XVIII.

THE FIRST DIRECTOR AND THE TIME-SPIRIT.

Act 1777 and The First Director.—The strictures of the Technical Education Commission upon the Education Department and the accompanying recommendations had made it abundantly clear that, if reforms and developments were to be made, the clerical head must give place to a man of professional vision, qualifications, and training. Act 1777, which was passed in December, 1901, embodied a number of the recommendations of the commission. It extended the period of compulsory attendance, it provided for the establishment of special schools such as continuation schools, and it altered the constitution of the Department itself by providing for the appointment of a Director of Education with greatly extended powers. "The Director shall be the permanent head of the Education Department instead of the Secretary; and, subject to the Minister, the Director shall have the responsibility of administering all Acts in any way relating to education." "Notwithstanding anything contained in any Act, the Secretary and all the inspectors, teachers, and other officers shall, during the pleasure of the Director, exercise such powers and duties, whether statutory or otherwise, as may be assigned to them in writing by the Director, and the Director may, with the approval of the Governor in Council, so assign to the Secretary or any other officer such of the powers and duties of a permanent head as he thinks fit."

Naturally, there was a feeling that a public officer in whom was vested such powers might become a dictator rather than a director; but events have not justified this fear. This is mainly due to the man

selected. The Peacock Government took the responsibility of appointing Mr. Frank Tate, a man 38 years of age, the junior of many officers of the professional staff of the Department. The situation was such that precedents were thrown to the winds, and seniority was ignored. His record since has fully justified the unusual step then taken.

Few men had a better grip of the Victorian education system than the new Director. Like many notable Victorians—judges, legislators, doctors, and other professional men—he had been educated in the State school. Born in 1863, near Castlemaine, he first went to the local school, and later attended the famous Model School in Melbourne, at a time when, under the headmastership of Mr. Patrick Whyte, M.A., it had a strong secondary division. He has always gratefully remembered the debt he owes as pupil and as pupil teacher to Mr. Whyte and to Mr. William Hamilton, B.A., the first assistant, who, in after years, became Chief Inspector. Both of these were cultured men of lofty ideals in the pursuit of knowledge and in the discharge of duty. At the Model School, the Training College was housed, and the frequent contact with the students stirred the ambition of impressionable young pupil teachers such as Mr. Tate.

Entering the Training College in 1883, he broke all previous examination records, and was reported as “a remarkably able and stimulating young teacher.” On leaving, he was put in charge of a country school near East Kew, and it soon became the custom to send students to him for practice. In this period, he worked for his degree, gave himself to the study of literature (especially of the Elizabethan period), and graduated in 1888.

In 1890, he was appointed a lecturer in the Training College, and, while acquiring a reputation as a stimulating teacher of literature, he gave much atten-

tion to the organization of the metropolitan schools, teaching methods, the training of teachers, and other aspects of the Victorian system. It has been told in a previous chapter, how, when the college was closed in 1893 as a measure of retrenchment, he and Mr. C. R. Long laid before the Minister a plan for central classes for pupil teachers, and were given charge of the education of some hundreds of the future teachers of the State.

Appointed, in 1896, to the inspectorial district of Charlton, he spent four years travelling over its 5,400 square miles, and learning the problems of the rural teacher through inspecting its 136 schools. Here, following the example of several progressive inspectors, he put in practice some of his theories. He strove to break down the barrier which the result system had built between inspector and teacher, and to inspire teachers with the belief that he and they were co-workers in a national cause. He gave popular lectures on education, he sought to interest parents in the school and its work, he conducted short courses of training, he met his teachers in conferences on Saturdays, and he held exhibitions of school work.

It has been noted that, in the dark days of retrenchment from 1893 onwards for some years, the Teachers' Union held great congresses, at which every phase of education was expounded and discussed and reforms and developments were indicated. Mr. Tate was a leading speaker at these meetings. In the congress of 1897, he traversed much of the Victorian system in an address on "Three Urgent Education Needs." He asked for (1) A full realization of what we mean by education; (2) arrangements for the steady supply of trained professional teachers; (3) such a modification of examinations as shall make them helpful and not harmful to the teacher. Before the Technical Education Commission, he enhanced his growing reputation as a progressive educationist; and when, in 1899, this commission and an aroused public opinion

demanded the re-opening of the Teachers' College, he was appointed to the position of principal.

Few of the students who assembled in February, 1900, at the re-opened Teachers' College could have had any idea of the great changes that were imminent, nor could they have foreseen what careers of service and new kinds of work were to open up for the more ambitious and capable among them. It is most interesting to follow the careers of the students who entered the college in the first few years after its re-opening, and to see how many of them are now inspectors, heads of high schools, or in advanced positions of the service. The new principal kept in his own hands the subjects of English and education; and, in his faith in English as the most essential subject in training a young teacher and as the basic subject of a liberal education, he anticipated much that has been put forward with such force and conviction in the recent report of the Board of Education's Committee on the teaching of English. According to his treatment of them, English and education had two common aims: fullness of life, and efficiency in service.

In those early days of the re-opened Teachers' College, no effort was spared to make up for the barren years when training had been abandoned. Country teachers were invited to attend vacation courses and summer schools, and a wonderful spirit of progress was thus evoked. The formative work commenced in these short courses and carried on by progressive inspectors in local centers gave new directions to the thought and study of the more ambitious teachers, and added vigor to the fine spirit which the Technical Education Commission had noted as the prevailing characteristic of the teaching service. Education was seen to be a national concern, the school a specialized institution for the physical, mental, and spiritual nurture of the young, the teacher one of a mighty multitude of spiritual workers who, in all progressive lands, were, through the upbuilding of the

young, helping to raise the peoples to higher levels of thought and action. As Mr. Tate had given to these summer schools so much of their inspiration and direction, there was little surprise when, in March, 1902, it was announced that, as the first Director under the Act, he would be expected to recast the whole system and breathe new life into its administration.

The Time-Spirit.—In her advance from the position revealed by the Technical Education Commission, Victoria was not travelling alone, nor was she without light and guidance. The years towards the end of the nineteenth century and at the beginning of the twentieth were, in all English-speaking lands, full of activity in every realm of educational thought and work. Before 1890, the students of education in the training colleges were given few text-books on its aims, its history, its scope, or its modern developments. Usually, they were required to study one on method and school management. After this time, American teachers, having sat at the feet of great Continental teachers, returned to their own land with the high conceptions of education which Pestalozzi, Froebel, and Herbart gave to the modern world. Books on educational psychology and child-study, books on the great doctrines of interest and self-activity, came in numbers to burst through the last entrenchments of the result system and to usher in the new day of freedom.

Nor must the example and guidance of the mother-country be ignored. In these new lands and young dominions, we are apt to delude ourselves with the belief that, in all essential matters of national life, we are ahead of the old land. In whatever other concern this may be true, it is not always true in that of educational development. The young, rich, democratic State of Victoria has, in its organization of public education, often lagged behind the mother-country, and its educational leaders have had to fight a conservatism as strongly entrenched as that of England. The great English Act of 1900 set the con-

ception of popular education far ahead of ours. It brought under the Board of Education a number of institutions having jurisdiction over secondary and technical subjects of instruction, and appointed assistant secretaries for elementary, secondary, and technical education. It provided for a Consultative Committee, among whose duties were the framing of regulations for the registration of teachers, and the inspection of all training colleges and "of all such secondary schools as shall apply to be inspected." England had begun to organize a system of State-aided secondary education as early as the year 1902. By 1900, there were professors of education in the universities of Scotland and in several of the English universities—a recognition of the fact that professional training of the secondary teacher was necessary. A new school of educational thought and practice had arisen.

It is fitting, at this place, to refer to the work and influence of John Anderson Hartley, President of the Council of Education of South Australia from 1875 till 1879, and from 1879 till his death by accident in 1897, Inspector-General of the Education Department of that State. A man of singularly lofty aims and of wide culture, he devoted himself with self-sacrificing zeal to the cause of the common school. He himself by patient inquiry and by research strove to discover right methods of teaching, and he begat the same attitude in many of his teachers.

In other Australian States, there was ferment and the desire for progress. Messrs. Knibbs and Turner were sent from New South Wales in 1902 to study educational systems abroad, and, on returning, published a most exhaustive report with detailed recommendations. This report led to a reorganization of the Education Department and the appointment of Mr. P. Board as Director in 1904. Within a few years after the appointment of Mr. Tate as Director, New

South Wales, Tasmania, and South Australia, and then Western Australia and Queensland appointed directors and issued new syllabuses of instruction.

In Victoria, there were many inspectors and teachers who had worked for the era of freedom, and who, in spite of drawbacks, had kept abreast of the movements of other lands. The Technical Education Commission had borne testimony to this. With the commission's reports as a plan of action, the experience of other lands to assure his steps, the knowledge that the other Australian States were moving forward with his own, and the confidence begotten of having so many willing supporters among his own officers, the Director might well take heart and move forward to the great task awaiting him.

CHAPTER XIX.

THE DIRECTOR'S FIRST YEARS, AND THE GREAT EDUCATION ACTS OF 1905 AND 1910.

Reorganization of the Office.—In accordance with a provision of Act 1777, Mr. Bagge was transferred (becoming Auditor-General), and the new Secretary, who was in charge of the clerical staff, was placed under the Director. Two new positions strengthened the professional side: Chief Inspectorship and Assistant Chief Inspectorship. The three men—Mr. S. J. Swindley, Mr. Wm. Hamilton, and Mr. A. Fussell—who have successively filled the first of these, embodied the best elements of the old regime, respected the limits sets by Acts and regulations, and yet were desirous of reform and of a greater freedom.

Principalship of the Teachers' College.—By chance or by a wise foresight, the Teachers' College had been erected in a corner of the University Grounds. The commission had strongly recommended the appointment of a lecturer on pedagogy at the University and the inception of a course for training secondary teachers. The Director, looking ahead, and seeing the possibilities of the situation, resolved that, if possible, the new principal should be qualified to be the University lecturer. A committee representing the University and the Department was, therefore, appointed to make a nomination, and Dr. John Smyth, a senior inspector of schools in New Zealand, who had recently returned from studying in Germany and Scotland, received the position. Before the end of the year, a course for a Diploma of Education had been instituted in the University, with the new principal as lecturer. Few at the time realized the importance of this step: a new link was forged between

the Teachers' College and the University; the training of the secondary teacher and the registration of teachers were made possible; and successive, and ever greater, developments in the training of teachers could now be undertaken.

The New Course of Study and Conferences.—The new course of study, issued in September, 1902, made new and difficult demands on the teachers; but, in their belief in the new educational ideals, they were willing to carry the added burdens. Mr. Tate knew how little could be achieved by mere regulation, and how needful it was for all in authority to meet the teachers face to face. In an early interview, he had said: "It is my intention to go as much as I can amongst the teachers. . . . We must work out such a conception of education as will make the system supply the kind of men and women we want in Australia." He wished, also, to have the parents interested in the school and school life. So, in those early years, he was constantly meeting inspectors and teachers, and discussing with conferences his ideals of education and the purpose of the curriculum.

Those who were privileged to attend any of those conferences will remember the youthful enthusiasm, the exuberant joyfulness, and the store of humorous and apt illustrations of the speaker. School-teaching under his spell took on the colors and shapes of fairy land, and one wondered why one had ever thought geography or nature-study, or even arithmetic, dry or monotonous. However critical or dispassionate any hearer might be, there was inspiration and suggestion in the utterances. As one teacher said, "The new ideals will never be realized, but the new impulses will have notable results." Thring wrote thus of the beginning of a similar era in English educational history: "So not only the freedom of the work itself, and the fascinating novelty of untried ground, and the zeal of such fellow-workers, and the feeling of enterprise, discovery, and life were full of attraction; but a national crisis of the most momentous

kind had come. The air was full of hope, and bright with possibilities." So felt many teachers and inspectors in the dawn of 1902. But they and the Director were to find, after much uphill struggle, that reforms in such a field as education are not easily won. Obvious practical difficulties were the lack of professional training of so many teachers, the natural conservatism of many others who had succeeded under a narrower system, and the apathy and indifference of a public which had come to look upon the school as the concern of the State and not of themselves. The daily papers were full of criticisms of the new order and of the absurdity of the changes which were being introduced. The first task, therefore, was to make sure that the teachers appreciated the new ideas.

Summer Schools.—Conferences, however inspiring, do not instruct. The Director, aware of this, employed all the means he had tried as inspector and as principal. For several years, he continued the summer school held during the long vacation. In 1901, two hundred teachers had attended; in later years, the numbers were nearly seven hundred, and many could not be admitted. In these schools, during a three weeks' session, there were classes of instruction in all the new subjects of the course of study. The teachers paid their own expenses, the lecturers gave their services free, and the cost to the Department was very little.

Nor were the inspectors left without special training. At times, they were grouped for conferences on the various subjects. There was a special school of instruction for them in drawing in 1902; and they were encouraged to visit certain schools together and note varying methods of inspection. A few of the ablest students of the Teachers' College at the end of each year were sent out to country inspectorates to visit the schools under the inspector's direction and help to enlighten the teachers on infant-room work, drawing, or science. Inspectors themselves held conferences and instructional schools. It was no easy task

to seek to instruct teachers scattered over 88,000 square miles of territory, most of whom had received no formal secondary education, and not one-fifth of whom had passed through the Teacher's College. It says much for inspectors, teachers, and instructors that so much progress was made in such a short time.

The Hon. Theodore Fink's Speech.—The reformed Department had been severely attacked by those who did not accept the new attitude towards public education. The revenue of the State was now affected by a drought, and another line of attack was developed by upholders of "economy." These ignored the facts that, for several years, school-buildings had been neglected and few new ones had been built, and that some redress was due to the teachers who had been so severely retrenched by the legislation of 1893-95. Any increase of expenditure was simply condemned as such. "The people want economy," says an article in *The Argus* of March 18, 1902, and "this should be Mr. Tate's cue."

This attack culminated in proposals by the Irvine Government to exclude children under six from school, and to charge fees for children over thirteen. It was in the early hours of the morning of the 22nd of December, 1903, that the Hon. Theodore Fink rose in the House to make one of his last speeches in Parliament and one of his greatest on education. The empty seats of the tired and weary chamber soon filled, and the fagged members sat up alert, listening with eagerness and attention to the strong appeal of the man who had given a great part of five years to two great educational commissions. Out of his abundant knowledge, he showed that the provisions for free education in Victoria lagged behind those of most British countries. The compulsory age in Victoria was from six to thirteen years, in Queensland six to fifteen, in West Australia six to fourteen, while, in England, education was free from three to fifteen. The curriculum in Victoria was not so extensive as in England, West Australia, or New South Wales. In

England and Scotland, books and materials were free, and this was now proposed in New South Wales. Was it right, he demanded, that children now should be penalized because of the added expenditure caused by neglect of buildings in the lean years? "Probably £250,000 had been lost through wooden buildings being allowed to yawn in the sun for want of paint." He ridiculed the amount to be saved—£30,000 at most—and pointed out that, had not a former government in a fit of so-called saving increased pensions in the Department from £33,000 to £76,000 yearly, we could now, through this item alone, pay the £30,000 and endow the University handsomely besides. He pleaded eloquently for justice to elementary schools, to technical schools, and to the University, and paid a glowing tribute to the zealous work of many teachers and professors. The House was convinced. The Government withdrew their proposals. It was a fitting termination to the parliamentary career of the man who had done so much for the improvement of Victorian education.

The Director's First Reports and His Visit to New Zealand in 1904.—This reactionary proposal of the Government following after the year of drought will indicate that the Director was not finding the way smooth. We find him face to face with his difficulties in his first report (January, 1903).

The report of March, 1904, and that of March, 1905, give much the same picture. In the latter, there is the encouraging announcement that several advances in the training of teachers have been made: the Melbourne Continuation School has been opened, a certificate for infant teachers has been instituted, and the first twenty teachers for the Diploma course have been selected. The report of 1906 is still more encouraging—three great Acts have been passed. One note of complaint mars the harmony—low salaries: "Victoria is in debt to her teachers." The year 1905

is one of the great years in Victorian education. Its forward policy followed a visit paid by the Director to New Zealand in 1904.

The New Zealand Visit.—The Director found that provision had been made by the original provinces in New Zealand for district and city high schools. In 1904, there were 50 district high schools giving free secondary education to over 1,400 pupils, and 30 endowed high schools with about 1,000 “free places.” Everywhere he found a keen interest in education, which he ascribed to the decentralized system with its provincial boards and local school committees. The buildings and furniture of the schools and the residences of the teachers were superior in design to those in Victoria. The staffing of schools was better, the standard of compulsory attendance was higher, and the training of teachers was further advanced.

All this may be learned from the report presented to the Minister on his return; and the effects may be seen in certain sections of Act 2005 and of Act 2311. The Director was fully confirmed in his own previous policy—it is necessary for a stable policy in education to secure the interest and support of local school committees.

The Great Acts of 1905.—Act 2005 we have already mentioned, and with it we shall deal more fully in the next chapter.

“*Teachers Act 2006.*”—This Act will be dealt with in the chapters treating of classification, promotion, and salaries. It put the copestone on the abolition of payment by results by providing fixed annual salaries. It also contained important clauses dealing with monitors, pupil teachers, teachers of infants, etc.

“*Registration of Schools and Teachers’ Act (Act 2013).*”—This is the Act which places Victorian educational legislation ahead of all English-speaking

lands.* We shall deal with it in detail later, when we speak of the wider relations of the Department.

The exhibition of school work of September, 1906, was the first great public manifestation of the steps forward the Department had taken. Many in the community were unaware of the changes in school work that had taken place or of their significance; and many were unaware of the range of work in the State schools or of its quality. The exhibition organized by teachers was itself a masterpiece of orderly arrangement and complete organization, and it filled the great Exhibition Building day after day for a fortnight with crowds of admiring people. Special trains brought parents and children from distant parts of the State; and, as the work was arranged according to the inspectorial districts, it was easy for the visitors to find that of their own schools in order to make comparisons. The girls of the cookery centers cooked dinners, the woodwork centers had fine displays of work, and concerts by pupils of the metropolitan schools gave new and heightened conceptions of the State schools. The new course of study had been steadily attacked and misrepresented in the press, and the exhibition was the Departmental reply to its critics. It is significant that, from this time onward, we hear less complaint as to extravagant and over-loaded courses.

The Director's Visit to Britain, Europe, and the United States: Act 2301.—By 1906, most of the recommendations of the Technical Education Commission for primary education had passed into Act or regulation. Some of the recommendations for agricultural education were being put into practice in the rural school and in the new agricultural high schools. The registration of schools and teachers was now an accomplished fact; but the recommendations for continuation classes, for technical education, and

*For the developments of 1905 and for the passing of the Act, credit is due to the Premier (the Hon. T. Bent) and to the Minister of Public Instruction (the Hon. A. O. Sachse).

for a council of education remained still on paper. So remained the Director's observations on district high schools, the extension of the scholarship system, and the establishment of local school committees as set out in his New Zealand report.

The Director had not forgotten them; and they were all revived in the report on British, European, and American systems he presented after his return from the Empire Conference on Education at London in 1907. His view was widened and his convictions strengthened by the observation of government systems which provided amply for every grade of educational institution from the kindergarten to the University. With this fresh in his mind, he framed the most comprehensive of all our education Acts, and the most important after the Act of 1872. It is a most eloquent testimony to the benefits of travel. Few public servants have taken more pains to educate the public to an appreciation of a travel report. For three years after his return, he addressed meetings in all parts of the State, and aroused a great desire for educational advance. This made the acceptance of his recommendations possible. The honor of carrying through the amending *Education Act 1910*, the most far-reaching in effect since the original Act of 1872, is due to the Hon. A. A. Billson, Minister of Public Instruction from 8th January, 1909, to 19th February, 1913. Mr. Billson made a very close study of the situation, and was heartily in favor of the movement for extending the scope of the Department through the field of secondary and technical education. It was to his active and sympathetic administration that the success of the new departure is to be attributed.

By 1911, most of the recommendations of the Technical Education Commission had been adopted, and in some directions Victorian education had gone beyond them. It is a new Department which now arises. The older Department was concerned only

with primary schools, and, in a desultory way, with technical schools. The new Department has organized all types of primary, continuation, technical, and secondary schools into one system, and is bringing them into the closest co-operation with the home, the farm, and the workshop, with commerce, and with the University in the task of developing the pupil and fitting him for the work of life. For several years, there are, except the *Salaries Acts*, no important measures dealing with education. The Director and his staffs are busy enough with supervising the rapid extensions under the great Act 2301.

In our further treatment, we shall abandon any attempt to follow the development of the Department's work as a whole chronologically, and shall, for the sake of clearness, deal successively with the development of the various branches included under it.

CHAPTER XX.

BUILDINGS. PLAYGROUNDS. ATTENDANCE. COMMITTEES.

Importance.—The slogan of education in a democracy is “equal opportunity for all.” This now means in progressive countries a broad-based elementary education suited to the needs of all children; a continued education for all who cannot remain at day school beyond the elementary age; a secondary or technical education for the gifted young people, so that they may be fitted for leadership in the various walks of life or may be prepared for entrance to the University; and a University education for the most gifted, so that the professions may be ably filled, and that the love of sound and exact knowledge and of scientific research may be fostered and encouraged. While it is regrettable that, for the first thirty years of its existence, the Education Department of Victoria had little concern except with the elementary school, that school must always be a chief concern, if not the chief concern.

The place this school fills in the educational life of our State may be seen from a few figures. In 1900, out of a school population of 259,096, there were 10,481 pupils over thirteen years in private secondary schools; in other words, 96 per cent. were receiving no education other than elementary. In 1921, owing to the rise of State secondary institutions, there were some 10 to 15 per cent. of the school population pursuing a secondary education. It is, therefore, safe to say that at least 85 per cent. of the school population does not proceed in day education beyond the elementary school. The significance of

these figures is increased by the knowledge that very few of these 85 per cent. receive any further education in schools.

Let us first consider the environment in which the elementary teacher has been doing his work. Under this are to be included not only the buildings with their equipment and playgrounds, but also the matters of compulsory attendance and of school committees; for all of these have helped or hindered the education of the great mass of our democratic citizens.

Buildings.—In the Director's earlier reports, he condemns in strong language the ministerial policy or lack of policy in regard to buildings.

After his visit to New Zealand in 1904, the Director reported as follows on the Victorian school-buildings: "One does not realize how faulty is the lighting of our rooms, how deficient they are in reasonable comfort, and how ungenerous is our allotment of air space to each child until he travels in such a country as New Zealand."

For confirmation, he quotes from a report by Chief Inspector Mr. P. Goyen, of Dunedin, who had made an official visit to his native land of Victoria in 1902: "After an absence of a quarter of a century, I was disappointed to find the same ill-lighted rooms, the same ill-designed and comfortless seats and desks, the same absence of class-rooms for infant departments, . . . the same distractions from the teaching of three or four classes in one long room, the same insanitary method of disposing of the hats and cloaks along the back wall of the school-room, and the same dismal lobbies. . . ."

From the point of view of the work to be done in them, some of the older buildings broke every commandment of the school-builder's decalogue. They were not orientated either for sun or prevailing wind. The window space too often was not half what it should be. The windows were, in most cases, at the back; and so the light was in the teacher's eyes, and, in the rooms which had high windows, the pupils,

in the late afternoon, were working in shadow. In many rooms, the windows were either on the north or on the west, and, as there were no blinds, the authorities, moved by urgent complaints, conceived the idea of green-frosting or white-frosting them. This led for the sake of uniformity to the frosting of all windows; and so the world without with its blue sky and birds and flowers and roads and busy life was shut out from the school. The room was then too symbolical of the aims thrust upon the school.

In the next annual report, the Director was able to announce that a conference of responsible officers was preparing a memorandum on the planning and erection of schools. This conference set out such aims as: 12 square feet for each child (previous aim, 10 ft.; but the Director had pointed out that this in practice sometimes became 8 ft., while New Zealand and other lands were aiming at 15 ft.). Walls of a room 13 ft. high. Light from the left, not from back; tops of windows 11 ft. 6 in., and lower edges 2 ft. 6 in. from floor. Ventilation—inlets and outlets to provide 1 square inch to each 20 cubic feet of air space. Dual desks, hat and cloak rooms, window blinds. Class-rooms usually 26 ft. 6 in. by 24 ft.

It should be borne in mind that the long room of the older city schools, with its two or three classes separated by curtains (too often dilapidated) was designed for an assistant with one or two junior teachers whom he could supervise. The new well-lighted, well-furnished, orderly class-rooms should have, as their accompaniment, a trained teacher to each room. The Director, though not always able to get both teachers and buildings, succeeded in having several old schools remodelled, and well-designed new ones built. A public opinion and a public taste were created, and Minister and Treasurer gained Parliamentary support for increasingly larger sums for these purposes.

In the period 1902-1915, of the 2,174 school-buildings at the close, 296 were new, and 458 were remodelled; these together equal almost 40 per cent. of the whole. This progressive work has continued ever since. The frosted windows have disappeared; the air and sunshine have free entrance; there is room for movement in the class-rooms; and the school is not so shut off from the life around. The modern school is a place where a child may grow on all sides of his being.

The accompanying graph shows the marked fluctuations in the vote for buildings over many years. The amount for each year covers maintenance of existing buildings, provision for new schools, and extension and remodelling of existing buildings. A study of the graph may cause the thoughtful reader to re-echo the wish of the Director, in the New Zealand report that, apart from sums voted for new buildings, a fixed sum proportionate to the number of wooden and of brick buildings in use should be set aside each year for their maintenance and repair.

All necessary remodellings are not yet completed; some of the older rooms and older schools remain.

Furniture and Equipment.—Like the schools them-

The Ministers of this period were:—

Feb., 1904 to Jan., 1909: Premier, Thomas Bent; Minister of Public Instruction, Arthur Otto Sachse (-Oct. 1908); John Bowser (Oct. 1908-Jan. 1909.)

Jan., 1909 to May, 1912: Premier, John Murray; Minister of Public Instruction, Alfred Arthur Billson.

May, 1912 to Dec., 1913: Wm. Alex. Watt; Minister of Public Instruction, Alfred Arthur Billson (-Feb. 1913); Sir Alex. J. Peacock (-Dec. 1913).

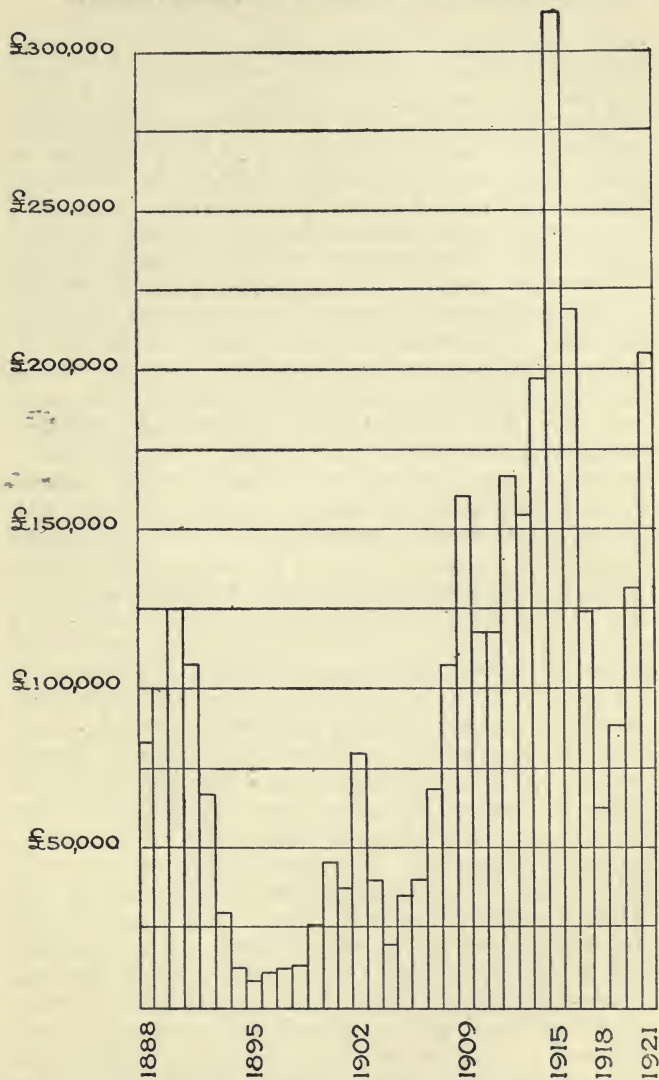
Dec. 9, 1913 to Dec. 22, 1913: Premier, Geo. Alex. Elmslie; Minister of Public Instruction, Hon. John Lemmon.

Dec. 22, 1913 to June, 1914: Premier, Wm. Alex. Watt; Minister of Public Instruction, Sir Alex. J. Peacock.

June, 1914 to Nov., 1915: Premier, Sir Alex. J. Peacock; Minister of Public Instruction, Thomas Livingston.

Nov., 1915 to Nov., 1917: Premier, Sir Alex. J. Peacock; Minister of Public Instruction, H. S. W. Lawson.

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TO SHOW ROUGHLY THE ANNUAL VOTE FOR BUILDINGS.

selves, the furniture and equipment of the older schools were not in keeping with the modern idea of the school as a place in which the child may grow healthily and pleasurably. It comprised long desks, with narrow, backless forms; wooden blackboards on easels; few presses; some maps more or less tattered; wall-charts; and an occasional tellurion. In most of the present-day schools, there are dual desks, hylo-plate mural blackboards, roomy presses, science apparatus, materials for organized games, pictures, libraries, a piano, pot-plants, etc. The furniture is supplied by the Department; desirable equipment (not considered absolutely necessary) may be had at reduced rates, but must be purchased by the committee. This responsibility creates and fosters a strong local interest in the well-being of the school.

Playgrounds.—As the old buildings were in accordance with the charity doctrine and the “three R’s” theory of education, so also were the playgrounds. Every school should have its playing spaces for the infants, larger spaces for the running, skipping, and round games of the children between eight and eleven, and larger spaces still for the basket-ball, hockey, cricket, and football of the upper grades. To provide all these grounds for, say, a school of 800 to 1,000 children, at least 5 to 7 acres are required. Few schools have three acres, some must be content with one acre, and at least four of the large schools of Melbourne have less than one acre of playing grounds. Such areas may stunt development; they cannot healthily promote it. Unfortunately, too, in the newer suburbs of the metropolis, there are few reserves. At least 10 per cent. of its total area should be reserved by each municipality for playing spaces for the young; but, in many of the better suburbs, the total reserves (parks, gardens, and playing spaces) form only 2 or 3 per cent. of the whole. In justice to the pioneers of the Department, it must be remembered that, in their day, demands were many, and around the schools were wide, open spaces now built on.

Play activities were, unfortunately, not sufficiently recognized in the educational theories of the day.

In the future, play will enter into school work as an integral part, and teachers will be trained to supervise and use play as they now supervise and use English or arithmetic. They will be surprised and delighted at the new revelations of the child's personality they will thus receive. The Education Department in recent years has aided in the establishment and maintenance of a municipal playground in Collingwood. There are two associations in Melbourne which aim at arousing interest in this movement. The work of these will be linked closely up with that of the Department in days to come.

Attendance.—The successive Acts dealing with school attendance and raising the standard of exemption provide an index of the growth of public interest in the school as well as an index of the growth of compulsory education.

The certificate of exemption was instituted in 1873, and, from that year till 1900, 228,975 certificates were awarded, an average of 8,480 per annum. To gain it, the pupil was required to pass in reading, writing, and arithmetic at the standard of an easy pass in the work of the fourth class. The Royal Commission on Technical Education condemned, in scathing terms, the ease with which it could be obtained. Hence, Act 1777 and the exemption age fixed at 12 years. The Director was greatly impressed, in 1904, by the high average attendance in New Zealand schools, and the promptness with which truants could be prosecuted; and so he copied the statutory attendance clauses from the New Zealand Act. Act 2301, which was copied from the Act of West Australia, is the expression of the principle that every child has a right to receive an education. It is the final word on compulsory attendance.

It is interesting to note that the percentage of average attendance relative to the net enrolment has increased under the operation of each of the three acts of 1901, 1905, 1910, the greatest increase being since

Act.	Statutory Age.	Statutory Attendance.	Exemptions.
447 (1872)	6 to 15 years	60 days each $\frac{1}{2}$ yr.	
541 (1876)	6 to 15 years	30 days each quarter, full-time schools.	Reasonable excuse, possession of a certificate of exemption.
1086 (1890)	6 to 13 years	40 days each quarter, full-time schools. 24 days each quarter, part-time schools.	
1777 (1901)	6 to 13 years	75% of the total half-days on which school is open. Truants proceeded against end of each quarter.	
2005 (1905)	6 to 14 years	4-6, or 6-8, or 8-10 of the total half-days on which school is open. Truants dealt with at the end of each week.	As under Act 1777.
2301 (1910)	6 to 14 years	Every half-day school is open.	Onus of proof of reasonable excuse now thrown on parents. Exemption certificate abolished.

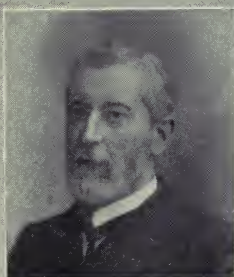
1910. The important factor in the formation of character in early life is habit, and the habit of regular attendance at school is necessary to interest and to progress in its work. Irregular attenders not



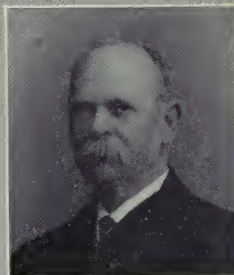
MR G.F. LINK.



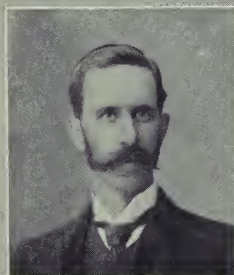
MR S. TREND



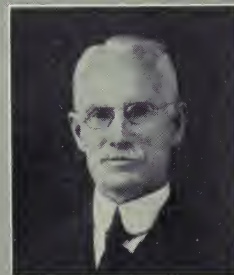
MR J.T. RAW.



MR G.H. CARTER



MR R.V. FARAVONI.



MR JOHN BRAITHWAITE

REPRESENTATIVE 'TEACHERS—PAST AND PRESENT.



MISS F. PELL.



MISS M. COX.



MRS GILLIES (*Née Anderson*)



MISS R. VIRTUE.



MRS H. O. STORER.



DR J. S. GREIG.

ORGANIZERS IN SPECIAL SUBJECTS:

Miss Pell (domestic arts), Miss Cox (swimming), Mrs. Gillies (formerly physical training), Miss Virtue (now physical training), Mrs. Storer (needlework), and Dr. Greig (Chief Medical Officer).

only interfere with their own education, but also with that of others. It is difficult, therefore, to estimate the value to the school and to its work of these successive Acts dealing with attendance.

Attendance Officers.—The 38 attendance officers of 1893 were cut down by retrenchment, so that the century opened with only 21. These still strove to maintain the old tradition to visit every school in their districts once a quarter. To-day, the staff numbers one senior attendance officer and fifteen attendance officers; and, though rural schools are not visited, yet the attendance was never so high. Only five officers work outside of Melbourne, namely, those at Ararat, Ballarat, Geelong, Bendigo, Oakleigh.

School Committees.—The danger in a centralized education system is to withhold responsibility from local bodies and so destroy local interest in the school. An aim in modern education is to link school and home through linking school work to home interests; and another aim is to secure the co-operation of parents and teachers in the work of education. The problem for the Education Department is to devise an arrangement by which the local community shall be concerned in the welfare of the school.

Act 447 (1872) provided for boards of advice, but, as each board controlled several schools, interest in the individual school was impossible. Inspector-General Stewart, before the commission in 1899, said that parents were uninterested, and that "local boards could not be got to act"; and the Director in his New Zealand report supported this by facts and figures. In contrast with this, he found every school in New Zealand had its local committee, with considerable powers; and, in consequence, there was a keen live interest in education throughout New Zealand. The schools in New Zealand were not mere numbers; every school had the local name, and every district was proud of "our school." Mr. Tate recommended

increased responsibilities or the abolition of the Boards.

Act 2301 (1911) abolished the boards and instituted school committees, to be elected by parents for a term of three years. Besides the old duties of exercising a general oversight over buildings and grounds, visiting the school regularly, observing its condition and management, and securing good attendance, there are, in addition, the duties of arranging for suitable lodging for the teacher, providing for the cleaning and sanitary services of the school, carrying out any necessary work referred to them, and promoting the beautifying of the schoolgrounds by gardens and agricultural plots, the decoration of the rooms, and the formation of a school library and museum.

Most of the committees have willingly co-operated with the teachers in the improvement of the grounds and the decorating of the rooms. Play pavilions, flags and flagpoles, windmills, libraries, etc., have been provided. The people of each district are beginning to regard the school as their own and the school-building as a meeting place on national days; and the school-children are called on to take part in every event of local or national importance. Each committee, too, is an agency for securing a more equitable distribution of public funds on school-buildings in different districts, and an agency which the local member cannot ignore.

CHAPTER XXI.

CLASSIFICATION, PROMOTION, SALARIES, STAFFING.

The next set of factors in the teacher's environment which make or mar his peace of mind, and which consequently enable him to work efficiently or inefficiently, are those pertaining to classification, promotion, salaries, and staffing.

The Block to Promotion: Retrenchment.—A distinctive feature of the Victorian education system, so far as it affects the salary, transfer, and promotion of teachers, has been the freedom, since 1885, from any suggestion of political patronage or interference. The Classified Roll first published in 1885, and prepared from time to time by the Committee of Classifiers, proved effectual, and the order of merit on the Classified Roll was the governing principle which guided the administration in making decisions as between teacher and teacher.

The Classified Roll included both a classification of school positions and a classification of teachers, and the law provided that teachers of a given classification were to be employed only in positions corresponding in importance with their personal classification. Should a position decrease in importance owing to a falling-off in the attendance of pupils in a school, the teacher occupying the position was regarded as "in excess," and it was the duty of the Department to transfer him at the first opportunity to a position corresponding with his personal classification. So long as conditions were normal, this system worked very successfully. Unfortunately, however, circumstances arose prompting action which brought very serious trouble upon the teaching service.

During the financial crisis of 1893 when the severest retrenchment became necessary, the Ministry determined to economize in two ways—by reducing salaries by means of percentage deductions and by

lowering the status of all future appointments. In order to make the second of these methods immediately productive, a large number of senior teachers was retired compulsorily upon pensions. But the financial need was too great to be met by this expedient alone, and, therefore, the Act was amended substantially. The existing law provided that a position in a given class, say, the third, must be filled by a teacher of the third class; and the average attendance of pupils governed the classification of the position. It was easy, therefore, by altering the number of attendances requisite for each classification and by increasing the number of classes, to have a number of teachers occupying positions below their own personal classification. Such teachers were to be regarded as "in excess," and were to be transferred to positions corresponding with their classification at the earliest opportunity. As the number thus created "in excess" was so very large, it naturally took many years to adjust the service to the new conditions; and, meantime, as every vacant position above those of the lowest class was filled by a teacher of that class "in excess," no promotions in class were possible.

This block to promotion was very disheartening during the ten years 1895-1905, and it speaks well for the zeal of the members of the teaching service that they responded so well to the new duties and responsibilities imposed upon them by the changes which the Director introduced from 1902 onward.

First Step Forward: Abolition of "Excess" Positions.—How to restore hope to the service and set the stream of promotion again running gave the Director much concern. Financial stringency made it impossible to obtain a hearing for any proposal to increase greatly the cost of the teaching service. The solution adopted was to obtain from Parliament an Act which would put an end to the continued grinding action of the retrenchment acts. In effect, it swept away the term "in excess" which had been brought into existence by altering the definition of the classes of schools. Borrowing a principle from

South Australian legislation, Act 2006 (1905) abolished the classification of schools and provided that henceforward there should be a definite number of positions in each class available to men and to women teachers. This number coincided broadly with the number of teachers at the time classified in the several classes, so that the transfer list of teachers "in excess" was swept away, and any vacancies could be filled by *bona fide* promotions. To make provision for the future growth of the service, it was provided that the schedule of positions agreed upon should be based upon an average attendance of pupils for the whole State of 150,000, and that, henceforth, the "total number of positions in each class of teachers shall from time to time be fixed in proportion to the number of children in average attendance at all State schools." The Act further provided that teachers of a given classification must be placed in positions as defined by regulations. The advantage of the new proposal was that the regulations were more elastic than the old Act, and it was no longer obligatory upon the Department to transfer a teacher on account of a comparatively slight diminution or increase in average attendance. The new Act declared in effect that retrenchment had gone far enough, and that the present numbers be now regarded as the basis for the future.

A new hope and a new spirit were thus breathed into the teaching service. Men who had given up all hope of advancement saw that there was now a chance, even though a remote chance, of promotion.

Second Step Forward: Promotion List.—A number of new problems, however, developed. On the Classified Roll, each class of teachers had been divided into three sub-classes. The first sub-class contained those teachers who were regarded as having the best claims to promotion. During the long period of cessation of promotion, the first sub-class in each class had grown inordinately large; and, as it was provided that promotions were to be made in the order of appointment to the first sub-class, it was easy for teachers to calcu-

late that it would be very many years before those at the bottom of the sub-class had any chance of promotion. The Legislature, therefore, agreed to the institution of the annual Promotion List. This was to be prepared by the Classifiers after considering the various factors which made up the efficiency of the teacher; namely, proved teaching and organizing ability, general conduct, and interest in work; literary qualifications; and length of service.* The Classifiers were ordered to consider the claims of all teachers in the first sub-class, and to select from among them the names of those teachers whom they regarded as having special claims to promotion. Teachers not selected for the Promotion List were given the right of appeal to the Public Service Commissioner. Naturally, there was a good deal of argument among teachers as to the equity of introducing this new system; but, in the end, the great body of teachers saw that such a system was necessary in the interests of the system as a whole; and the principle once adopted has never since been departed from.

The practical effect of the Promotion List has been to bring about a very keen competition among the teachers in each class, and it has accordingly focused the attention of teachers and of administrative officers upon the work of the inspectors. It is these officers who supply the data upon which the Committee of Classifiers must work, and any imperfections in these data and any inequality in standard must naturally affect the judgment of the Classifiers and the fortunes of the teachers concerned. It must be said for the administrative staff that they have taken every care to see that the inspectors are properly instructed in their duties and obligations, that their work in the field is closely supervised by the Chief Inspector and his staff, that they are afforded

*The first of these is denominated the "numerical estimate," and is fixed by the inspector, the possible maximum being 100 marks. The second and third have each a possible maximum of 10 marks, and are determined by regulations. Teaching ability as shown in actual school work, therefore, is given 100 out of 120 marks.

frequent opportunities of meeting together in conference with the administrative officers, and that they have opportunities, by working occasionally at the head office, of dealing with the reports from all over the State, which are being sent in daily. These steps have been taken in order to standardize the judgments of the inspectors as far as is humanly possible.

Other safeguards have also been introduced. There are no such things as secret reports upon officers, nor confidential instructions to inspectors. The inspector writes a lengthy report upon the details of his inspection visit to a school, and it is the duty of the principal teacher to transcribe this on the official form and forward it to the inspector. The inspector should discuss his report with the teacher concerned. The teacher is instructed, when sending the copy of the report to the inspector, to put forward any reasons he may have for taking exception to any statement therein. This enables the inspector to comment upon the statement before forwarding the case to the head office. Before sending in his report, the inspector makes a careful assessment of the worth of each teacher on the staff. If teachers so desire, they may have a copy of this personal report sent upon application. It is these personal reports which are entered in the teacher's record and are the general evidence before the Classifiers. The greatest care is taken within the office to see that assessments which vary substantially from previous assessments by the same or by other inspectors are not accepted without question, and every care is taken to see that the rights of the teacher are protected.

It may be said, therefore, that an endeavor has been made to devise a system which shall give the higher positions to those teachers only who have proved exceptionally worthy.

Third Step Forward: Increase in Number of Positions.—The next important step forward was taken in 1909. After much agitation, the representatives of the teachers obtained from the Bent Government a

promise that a sum of £77,000 would be made available to augment their salaries. The method adopted by the administration to utilize this increase is well worthy of remark. The Director took the view that the most important consideration was to restore to the teaching service hope and ambition of future advancement. Many teachers had made up their minds that there was no chance for them to rise out of the junior classes. With such an attitude real progress was impossible.

Accordingly, the new amendments of the Act provided very little alteration in the schedules of salaries, but substantial additions in the schedules of positions. The practical effect of this was to bring about the immediate promotion of a very large number of teachers, and to make the prospects of those not immediately promoted much brighter than they had hitherto been. It is probable that no Act affecting the salary of teachers in recent years has had a greater effect in improving the *moral* of the service than the Act of 1909. Men and women who had for years resigned themselves to positions in the lower classification now found themselves in the stream of promotion. As many of the higher positions could be obtained only by the possession of special educational qualifications to be obtained by University study or, in the case of women, special preparation in the method of the infant-school, a very great incentive was given to teachers to qualify themselves by further study. There was on all sides keen application to be included in the various classes which the Department was prepared to form.*

*In comparing the literary qualifications of the teachers of 1900 and 1921, we find that, whereas in 1900 only 2.7 per cent. had First or Second Honors, in 1921, these were held by 5.6 of the teachers; and, whereas in 1900 84 per cent. had only the Certificate of Competency or a Licence to Teach, in 1921, only 25 per cent. of the teachers had these low qualifications. These numbers in 1921 do not include the large bodies of high-school and of technical-school teachers, nearly all of whom have the Diploma of Education (a three years' University course), and most of whom have a Pass or an Honors University degree.

Fourth Step Forward: Substantial Increases in Salaries.—The women teachers had never forgotten how badly they were treated during the period of severe retrenchment, and they lost no opportunity to impress upon members of Parliament, through their organizations, the fact that the rates of pay of qualified women teachers were much below those which the community was paying to less skilled women workers. A measure of redress was secured in 1911 when the salary schedules of the women were slightly increased.

In 1912, the Minister (the Hon. A. A. Billson) found it necessary to ask Parliament for an increase in the salaries of men teachers. The proportion of men to women teachers was steadily decreasing, and provision, therefore, was made for a substantial increase, which brought the salary of the men teachers to approximately what the salaries were before the period of retrenchment. No corresponding treatment of the women teachers was forthcoming for six years, owing, no doubt, to the war; but, in 1918, the case for the women teachers was so strong that Parliament provided an extra £75,000, and the schedules were amended in order to give effect to the principle that women teachers were to receive at least four-fifths of the rates paid to men teachers of the same classification. Although the women teachers accepted this advance gratefully, they have never ceased to advocate "equal pay for equal work."

The salaries of teachers were now brought back to what they had been previous to 1895; but the purchasing power of the sovereign had meanwhile decreased enormously, and there was much discontent throughout the service. In 1920, the Lawson Government determined to make provision for the teachers and the general public service, and a committee presided over by the Public Service Commissioner drew up a scheme of remuneration. This was adopted by Parliament, and caused great satisfaction amongst the teachers. While there are inevitably some who con-

sider they are anomalous cases, it is certain that the general body of the teaching service are more contented. The new Act reduced the number of classes of teachers from six to five. It provided that men teachers of the lowest class should rise to a salary of £312, and women of the same class to a salary of £252. Men teachers of the first class rise to a maximum of £600 per annum, while women teachers of the highest or second class rise to £420.

A General Survey of Salaries: The Teachers' Union.—While the salaries of the various classifications are regarded by the teachers as fair, they have on several occasions pointed out that the opportunities for rising to the highest classes are not sufficiently numerous. The Committee of Classifiers has, on several occasions, borne witness to the fact that they have the greatest difficulty in making a selection for the Promotion List owing to the large number of teachers who have excellent claims to promotion. The operation of the present system of classification and promotion has brought about very keen competition, and has stimulated the service to a remarkable degree. Any advance in the prospects of teachers should undoubtedly come by way of increasing the number of positions in the higher classes available for those who are sufficiently meritorious.

The system of payment to teachers adopted in Victoria differs very markedly from systems adopted in other countries. It was the custom many years ago to pay various allowances and bonuses for special services. In the time of financial stress in the nineties, these were cut away, and they have never been restored. Probably this is a good thing. The ordinary staff of teachers now carries out all such special services as a customary part of its duty. The plan has been adopted of fixing a minimum and maximum salary for each classification. Provision is made for progress by a system of annual sub-divisional promotions which are earned by a teacher by positive work, and not by effluxion of time only. The Committee of Classifiers

recommends each year these subdivisional promotions, and it is guided by the inspectors' reports upon the teacher's work. So long as he does sufficiently good work, he is assured of passing from the minimum to the maximum salary of his class. The aim of the most recent salary measure has been to fix a sufficiently high salary for the lowest class to enable teachers to live with a reasonable amount of comfort, and to provide that every teacher can attain the maximum fixed.

The story of the salary treatment of the teachers over a period of nearly twenty-five years is not a pleasant one, and it shows very clearly that, for many years, the people of Victoria had not an awakened educational conscience nor a true appreciation of the work of their schools. Happily this cannot be said to-day.

Of course, in the agitation for better conditions, the Teachers' Union played a great part; and it must be said, in fairness to the associations of teachers, that they have steadily kept in view not only their desire for a "fair day's wage," but have also been prepared to take such measures to improve the teaching service generally as will ensure "a fair day's work." In this respect, they have been a good pattern to industrial and professional organizations. An example of the attitude of the teachers may be quoted as significant: During the Great War, one of the first acts of the State Government was to stop increments in salary, and to require those who were promoted in class to undertake the new duties at a salary not exceeding that of the class below. No body of citizens gave more devoted service during the war period than did the teachers of the Education Department; and it is significant that, during this period, when staffs were depleted owing to enlistments, and when a great burden was placed upon the teachers in building up the Education Department's War Relief Fund, the administrative officers were able to testify that there was less trouble with the staff as a whole than in previous years. On one occasion, the Teachers' Union in deputation, in pressing for the most generous consideration of the claims of enlisted teachers then on

active service to present and future promotion, asserted that the teachers as a body were anxious to see preference given to these men, although they knew that it meant restricted opportunities for those who were at home. As the teachers of Victoria for years had to plead for a return to the higher salaries of which they had been deprived, it is only right that such instances in their favor should be placed on record.

Staffing.—Partly because of the increased expenditure on buildings, salaries, and new developments (as high schools and technical schools), a commensurate improvement in staffing has not been made. For schools under 150 pupils, the staffing to-day is practically what it was in 1893; and for schools of 1,000 pupils, there are 13 assistants to-day instead of 10, but the number of junior teachers remains the same—11.

To illustrate the increase of women teachers, it may be pointed out that, whereas in 1900 the number of male classified head teachers and assistants outnumbered the females by nearly 200, in the same positions to-day the women outnumber the men by 600; and that, of the 7,016 teachers now employed, 4,701 are women. They are now asking for more opportunities to fill higher positions, and to be placed at the head of girls' and infants' departments.

Victoria still holds to the system of staffing which employs junior teachers to do the work of assistants. In 1900, the number employed was 1,732; to-day, it is 1,765 (of whom 1,481 are females). Relatively to the total number of teachers, the number has decreased—the proportion in 1900 was 34.8 per cent., and to-day it is 25.1 per cent. Besides this decrease, other advances have been made. Junior teachers are older and better prepared scholastically when they enter the service than formerly; but these advantages do not compensate for the lack of a college course of training. However, it is only right to say that, with the carefully devised schemes for supervising the work of these young people in the schools, a capable staff of classified teachers is produced.

CHAPTER XXII.

THE COURSE OF STUDY.

The New Curriculum.—So much for externals. Let us now come to the very heart of the teacher's work—the development of the child. But what is meant by development, and what subjects must be taught, and how must they be taught to secure it? These questions will be answered or partly answered by a consideration of the curriculum at successive epochs.

One sees from a glance at the accompanying table that, in the later curricula, issued from 1902 onwards, certain subjects such as history, science, drawing, physical training, which formerly were subordinate, have attained the importance of separate subjects; that new subjects such as nature-study, manual training, mathematics, and hygiene are introduced; and that the later curricula differ from the earlier not only in range of subjects, but in the grouping of the subjects.

Opponents of the later curricula have often overlooked the fact that the extension of the work of the elementary school is a world-wide phenomenon. Thus we find that the English code of 1902 includes all the subjects (with more liberal provision) of the Victorian course of study of 1902.*

An examination of the curriculum of any of the Australian States within a few years after 1902 shows the same range of subjects and the same aims in treatment. By comparing the present Victorian curriculum with that of any progressive land, it is

*See Birchenough—*History of Elementary Education*, p. 308.

COURSES OF STUDY—THE CURRICULUM

1872 Act	1896 Regulations	1900 Regulations	1902 Schedule and 1905 Regulations	1912 Course of Study Also 1920 General Course
Reading	Reading, Spelling, and Explanation Poetry—*Recitation Dictation Composition	Reading, Spelling, and Explanation Recitation Dictation Composition	Reading and Spelling Transcription Poetry	English *Language Reading *Phonics and Spelling and Word-building Poetry Writing Composition & Gram. *Literature—Supplementary Rdrs.
Grammar	Grammar	Grammar	Gram. and Comp.	
Writing	Writing *History — Outlines in Readers supplemented by "Empire."	Writing *History (separate subject)	Writing History * (Class I and II, Stories; Class III, Australian; Class IV, Austrln. and English; Class V, English; Class VI, Eng. and Civics*)	History. Stories, History and Civics (*including Local History)
Arithmetic	Arithmetic *Mental Arithmetic	Arithmetic Mental Arithmetic	Arithmetic Mental Arithmetic	Mathematics Number (*Oral and Arith. *Writ. *) Men. and *Prac. Arith. *Alg., Geom. (Grades VII and VIII)
Drill Gymnastics (where prac.)	Drill and Exercises Gymnastics (where practicable)	Drill and Exercises Gymnastics (where practicable)	Drill and Phys. Trg. Gymnastics (where practicable)	*Directed Play Phys. Exercises *Breathing Exers. Marching and Class Drill *Games *Swimming First Aid *Breathing Note Exers. Ear Tests Songs Theory*
.....	Singing	Singing	Singing	Singing

*Asterisks denote new subjects or new parts of subjects.

found that Victorian teachers and children are not dominated by any peculiar or exceptional demand with regard either to subjects or method. A careful study of the modern curriculum from this world-wide point of view will reveal that it arose from the following causes: (1) The views of educational thinkers and workers on the child and his development, (2) the scientific and industrial advances of the nineteenth century, (3) the growth of democracy, (4) the experience of the great body of teachers in all lands.

The basis and aim of the modern curriculum were discussed and determined at the beginning of the nineteenth century. It was declared that the aims of education are inseparable from the supreme aims of man's life itself, and that the development of the child should proceed according to the laws of his being. Great thinkers said that the curriculum should include subjects to nourish all fundamental instincts, capacities, and powers. Thus, there should be subjects to develop (1) the body; (2) the scientific nature, with its desire to discover causes and ascertain truth; (3) the æsthetic nature, with its love of order, harmony, and beauty; (4) the social nature, which finds expression in citizenship, vocation, the home, and social life; (5) the moral nature, which seeks for right thought and action—goodness; and (6) the religious nature, which rises through all the other natures to the Divine. The child, they maintained, grows from within; hence the true principle of teaching is that which secures his co-operation, and, in the end, secures self-determination and self-government.

These views did not gain acceptance from teachers and authorities at once. From the middle of the century onwards, new voices, such as Spencer's and Huxley's, began to emphasize the claims of science. The industrial movement pressed these claims, and made evident the need for such subjects as drawing, manual training, industrial geography,

and the training for a vocation. The growing democratic movement demanded that civics and history should be so taught that the future citizen would know something of his responsibilities.

With this clearer conception of the ends of education, there came a demand for a curriculum of many-sided interests. This came, too, when many thoughtful teachers were endeavoring to burst the shackles of the system of payment by results. A greater proportion of the teachers than heretofore were educated men and women, a deeper study was being made of the process of teaching, and attention was being paid to the utterances of the great masters in education and to all the needs of the age.

Hence the tentative attempts at a wider curriculum in 1885, 1889, and 1899; and hence the new curriculum in 1902 (Regulations, 1905) and of 1912. In these, especially in the last two, we have a new attitude to the child, a new expression of the relation of the school to life, and a new statement of methods in teaching. The child is to find a full life in the school, his growing interests (all his natures) are to be catered for, and he is to be treated as a thinking, trusting, and active being. The school is to aid in his development, and, as he grows older, more fully prepare him for the life he is to lead, the work he is to do. The treatment of such subjects as geography and arithmetic is to be completely altered in the light of these aims, and a finer, fuller, greater conception of the value and treatment of the mother tongue is given to the teacher.

Here we have the justification of the new curriculum with its many subjects and new methods. It cannot be claimed that the publication of the curriculum brought the new aims into all the school-rooms, or that, at once and for all time, all the problems of the curriculum were solved.

The Teaching of Each Group.—In the English group of the curriculum of 1913, phonics and literature appear for the first time. The first indicates the attempt to improve the spoken speech, and the

second the attempt to impart a love for good books. That the speech of the younger generation is sometimes slovenly, and that their ear has not been trained to the music of the mother tongue, are defects which teachers are asked to remedy. The experiments with Shakespeare in English schools have shown that children can appreciate literature, and will read the best when encouraged to do so. In Victorian schools, more emphasis is now placed on silent reading, more time is given to literature, and, in future, in many schools "free periods" will give to dramatic literature that place demanded by the recent English report on English.

The very term "mathematics" indicates the determination to give a better preparation for life-work. The prescriptions concerning higher arithmetic have been lessened; and the aim is to make the teaching more practical.

History is given a wider interest, and the thoughts of the children are widened by the stories of ancient times. Geography is now studied more scientifically than formerly. Both geography and history received a strong fillip through the Great War. In singing, the program of 1913 set out an alternative course in the tonic sol-fa and staff notations. Music, its place and power, has yet to be understood in education. Physical training has made great strides in recent years, and teachers are becoming better apprised of its aim and methods. Some day, the teacher will intelligently aid the doctor in this subject. Much advance has been made in teaching drawing, and some in manual training; but there is still doubt concerning their aims. Should they be taught to develop the æsthetic sense, or as a means of expression, or for purely practical ends?

The Individual Child.—"The curriculum, furniture, school, and teacher are for the child," is a watchword of modern education. Experience and experiment prove that there are great differences in the abilities of children of the same age, and, at the

present time, in many schools, the slower children are being taught in ungraded classes. Ultimately, these will be linked up with a clinic for subnormal children at the Teachers' College. Much experiment has yet to be done, and much better training of teachers established. The experiments, on the one hand, of working the class in sections according to progress, and, on the other, of using the "free period," are yielding fruitful results. The teacher does not rely so much on the class lesson, and the child is being trained to use books and discover knowledge for himself. There is another consideration of the child which the school authorities are beginning to entertain: the consideration of his educational needs in view of his life-work.

The Teacher.—Ultimately, in all school reforms and in every vital education question, we come to the teacher.. Without his intelligent understanding and sympathetic co-operation, any curriculum, however wisely framed, is but vanity. In the past, in spite of dingy rooms, poor equipment, and the mechanical aims and methods of the result system, many teachers developed intelligence, fired ambition, and formed character. To-day, the teachers are no less enthusiastic, no less earnest; but the demands grow more severe and require higher knowledge and a more intelligent procedure.

CHAPTER XXIII.

THE INFANTS' DEPARTMENT.

Training the Teachers.—It was the genius of Pestalozzi and of Froebel which, by research, practice, and scientific theory, established Plato's saying that in education beginnings are all important, and which opened up the subject of child-study. The charity doctrine and "three R's" theory asserted that any one could teach infants, and it was on this assumption that the work in the infant-rooms of the schools in British lands was too often conducted: monitors and raw pupil teachers were placed over the preparatory classes. Devoted men and women, through repeated experience, exploded this theory and established the position of the great thinkers.

The Royal Commission on Technical Education reported on the backwardness of the infant-rooms, and pointed out the importance which should be placed on the work done in them. It also recommended the importation of a woman organizer who would be capable of instructing the teachers. In no part of its system can the Victorian Education Department be prouder of the progress made since 1900 than in the infant-room.

In that year, under a three year's engagement, Miss Eva Hooper, from England, began her work as kindergarten and infant-room organizer. Under her, an enthusiastic class of teachers began studying for the work of senior infant-mistress; a considerable portion of the second year of the women students at the Teachers' College studying for the Trained Teacher's Certificate was devoted to the theory and practice of the kindergarten and infant-room; and occasional classes were held in other centers. At Miss Hooper's suggestion, the new type of infant-school—a central assembly-hall with mural

blackboards surrounded by class-rooms—was built at Armadale, Essendon, Ascot Vale, and Central Brunswick; and her influence is apparent in the new curriculum of 1902.

The new Principal of the Teachers' College (Dr. John Smyth), who had a profound belief in the value of the kindergarten methods and of child-study, gathered round him, with the consent of the Department, a number of the most enthusiastic students of Miss Hooper's senior class; and, for some years, he and they gave the lectures for the Infant Teacher's Certificate to the students of the college, while they also gave these students practical training in their schools. The most gifted of these women was Miss Emmeline Pye, who, at the Principal's suggestion, was placed, in 1904, in charge of the infants' department in the newly constituted practising school at Central Brunswick. She soon displayed her insight into the teaching of Froebel, her power of adapting his principles to all the subjects throughout a large infants' department, her creative skill in handwork, and her power to influence and train students. To all this work, she brought unusual gifts in music, drawing, handwork, the love of nature, and the understanding of the child.

The first State kindergarten was opened under Miss Pye in 1907, partly as the result of an agreement between the Council of the Free Kindergarten Union and the Principal of the Teachers' College (who had assisted in forming the Union) that the students of the Union should receive their two years' training at the college, the free kindergartens, and the State infant-rooms. This arrangement was ratified by the Department, and remained in force till 1917, when the Union opened its own training institution. In her use of Australian materials for the kindergarten, in the linking up of the work to the home, the neighborhood, and to the more formal work of the infant-room, Miss Pye displayed her originality and her fitness for higher appointments.

In 1908, she was placed on the staff of the Teachers' College, while still retaining supervision over the work of training at Central Brunswick.

In order to spread the influence of the Teachers' College, a few of the ablest of the women students were sent, each year, to different inspectorial districts to pass on what they had learned. Till 1911, Saturday classes for the Infant Teacher's Certificate were held in Geelong, Bendigo, and Ballarat under the district inspectors and some qualified teacher or teachers. Occasionally, Miss Pye visited these, and examined the handwork of the students. Summer schools were conducted at Portsea in January, 1909, and January, 1910, and infant-room work was a special feature of these gatherings. Circulars of information in the *Education Gazette* supplemented the efforts and reached a wider community.

All women teachers who desired promotion above the fifth class were required to pass for the Infant Teacher's Certificate. The efforts to aid them to secure this, just described, were partial in their effects and irregular in character. Provision, however, had been made by evening and Saturday classes at the college for metropolitan teachers. To help the teachers outside the metropolis, a correspondence branch was opened in 1911. From 100 to 150 teachers each year since have been benefited by this. In October, 1914, these teachers were brought to Melbourne for a two days' course of instruction. The "school," continued each year since 1914, now lasts for a week.

In 1913, the Teachers' College was divided into three departments—secondary, primary, and sub-primary, and the students belonging to the sub-primary were given a full two years' course. In the next three following years, the State schools in the neighborhood of the college became practising schools, and kindergartens were opened at the Faraday-street, Errol-street, and Prince's Hill schools,

while, in the Queensberry-street School, three country infant-rooms, each with four grades, were instituted for practice in teaching. A special diploma course for experienced infant-room teachers was commenced in 1915.

When Miss Pye retired in 1918, she had the satisfaction of knowing that, all over the State, her students, inspired by her ideals and example, were using her methods; that her reading-books had helped the work she loved so well; and that the blackboards and class-rooms of many old and many new buildings reflected the spirit of Froebel and of Montessori.

Courses of Study, Inspection, and Examination.—To follow the development in the work of the infant-rooms, we shall glance at the successive courses of study. The work prescribed by the curriculum of 1899 covered little more than the "three R's," and there was no hint as to method in the few words in which it was stated. The only thought subject was that denominated "general lessons"; the other subjects were reading, writing, spelling, poetry, arithmetic, and drawing. The prescriptions in reading were so narrow that most pupils could memorize every lesson, and "read" it off with books shut and without comprehension. The narrow program and mechanical methods of teaching and inspection fitted the system of payment by results, which was not intimately enough concerned with the development of the child.

In the curriculum of 1902, there is a wealth of subjects. To those of the old list for the first class (Grades I. and II. in the new), oral composition, nature-study, stories (mythological, fairy, and nature), manual work (four kinds), physical training (including finger-plays, games, exercises, etc.) are added. The prescriptions under the old subjects breathe a new spirit. Thus an alternative course, correlated with daily topics, is allowed in reading, there is informal as well as formal writing, and the demands in arithmetic interest the child because

they make him handle real things. This curriculum is informed by the idea of education as the development of the child on all sides. There are subjects to cultivate thought, and many subjects to enable the child to express its thought. The "interests" of the child are provided for in finger-plays, games, stories, handwork, drawing, nature-study, and oral composition. The child is considered as a living, thinking, feeling, and active being, craving development in all his "natures."

The further advance in the course of study of 1912 is the division of the school into departments. Under the head-mistress is placed the junior department, which, consisting of the preparatory grades, and the first and the second, corresponds with the old first class, upper and lower. The preparatory grade takes six months, and is occupied chiefly with kindergarten work of all kinds.

The "preparatory" work is stated in the 1920 curriculum to be for children under six, and children should pass into the second grade at the age of seven. While the prescriptions remain much as before, there is an advance: Montessori apparatus should be used to teach writing; mass drawing and drawing from the object are introduced; written composition may be on a nature specimen, a picture, or an object of special interest; and one period each week is set down for free reading.

A curriculum of many-sided interest was given in 1902. The succeeding ones are the developments or modifications of this, which experience and the increased skill of the teachers dictate and demand. The advance is both in range of subjects, and in the application of the principles and methods of Froebel and of Montessori to the work of the infant-room. The increased power of the pupils is seen in their range of ideas, their composition, language, and other modes of expression, and in the extent of their reading. Discipline in the new relation of teacher and pupil is no longer a problem, and the children's

powers of self-direction and of concentration are manifested in the free period.

Seeing that the freedom of the child, of the teacher, and of the inspector are inseparably bound together, there can be no freedom to one, unless a corresponding freedom is given to the others. Under the new system, the greater freedom permitted to teacher and to child enables both to do more work, as can be seen in reading, in composition, and in arithmetic, and also enables the inspector to test more freely. The results of the head-teacher's tests are taken into account, and the infant-teacher is allowed to ask questions and to test knowledge and power.

Buildings, Staffing, Methods.—The older buildings had little without or within to develop the æsthetic nature of the child. The long infant-room was arranged for mass teaching. At the end of it was a gallery, on whose narrow, backless seats the sixty or eighty "babies" were drilled into learning.

To-day the red-tiled roofs and beautifully designed buildings are pleasing in themselves. The lofty central hall, with artistically covered mural blackboards, plants, birds, or aquarium, and its indispensable piano speaks of children's pleasures and the beauty of childhood. Around are the clean, well-appointed class-rooms similarly equipped. Ample cloak-rooms and lavatories, besides rooms for the teachers, complete the block. The rooms and the equipment do honor to the work carried on in them.

Staffing.—The advantage of the one large room for the old system of staffing lay in the fact that the mistress could note every move made by one of her two or three monitors or junior teachers, and could correct a fault at once. The separate class-rooms do not possess this questionable advantage; they are for qualified teachers.

In no department of the primary school has the pupil-teacher, or junior-teacher, system revealed its inherent defects so much as here. In some schools, the raw, untrained young teachers are put in the

infant-room till trained; in many, the junior teachers are transferred when there are classes without teachers in the upper school and pupil-monitors are sent to the infant-room in their places. Head masters and infant-teachers do their best in the circumstances; but the burden place at times by this system on the infant-mistresses is very heavy. There has been, however, an improvement in the staffing since 1900.

Methods.—In the best schools, the change in method has followed the change in buildings, in curriculum, and in training. The best lessons aim at the development of the personality of the child; they are linked on to his interests and lead him out into the world of nature or the world of human society, and then let him, through language, play, song, drawing, and handwork, express what he has seen and felt. Delightful excursions are held; and, in these, there is an outlet for the natural bodily activities of the child, and the cultivation of the seeing eye, the hearing ear, and the understanding heart. The infant-teacher is now asked to remember that, in childhood, the instincts and impulses should be guided, not repressed, and that habits then formed are important for after life. It is the living personality embracing body, mind, and heart that she has to nurture and direct. It must be admitted that there are teachers in infant-rooms who are unable to do all this, and who still follow mechanical methods. Till better systems of staffing and of training are introduced, this must be so.

Latest Developments.—The Montessori methods are being applied gradually as space, apparatus, and the teacher's knowledge permit. Miss Pye had developed the use of the free period, and had devised a method of beginning writing through finger-work, before she knew of Montessori. When our teachers acquire the ability to study the child, and when there is more freedom and more stimulus for them

to do so, more progress will be made. A development in recent years has been the instituting of mothers' meetings, story-telling clubs, and parents' days. The Christmas tree, round which parents and children gather, and on which are gifts provided for the children by their parents, is a sight that touches the heart. One or two infant-rooms have special days for sending gifts to hospitals and children's homes, and in this act the school is rising to higher levels of service. He who would remember the sacred moments of life should step in for a brief space and listen to the children in one of these rooms singing their morning hymn. He will leave, realizing that a school can be a holy place, and that a child's voice can still the voices of discord and self-seeking in the world without, and awake in all of us the "better angels of our nature."

CHAPTER XXIV.

THE RURAL SCHOOL.

It goes without saying that, in all new lands, the rural school is of special value. It is the school of the backblocks and of lonely places—the school of the pioneers. Through it, there is given to the children of the remotest communities an opportunity of becoming intelligent citizens of the State, of the Empire, and of the world itself. No part of the world has placed more value on the rural school than the States of Australia and the Dominion of New Zealand, and nowhere else has the rural school reached a higher development.

Almost 90 per cent. of all the State elementary schools have under 150 pupils, and are denominated “rural.” The growing hold the Education Department has on the people of the State is in no small part due to the devoted work of so many of the teachers of these schools, who bring to the pupils and their homes the heart-contact of a helpful personality. Through their work, there have gone out into the wider life of the nation—judges, doctors, clergymen, heads of State departments, leaders of the Stock Exchange, business men, members of Parliament, etc. Most of the inspectors of the Department graduated as teachers in the rural school.

Peculiar Characteristics of the Rural School.—The fundamental difficulty or problem of the rural school is to devise an arrangement (time-table), so that the teacher can be satisfied that in each period of the day every child is educatively employed. In the discovery of this, nearly every great principle of teaching was re-discovered or firmly established—self-activity, co-operation (the strong helping the weak), and the grouping of classes. The devising of this

time-table, and the perfecting of the machinery under it is one of the triumphs of modern education, the greatness of which has rarely been sufficiently recognized.

The Victorian standard for the rural schools has ever been high. Till 1902, the classes in them were examined on the same program and at the same standard as for city schools. The students, on leaving the Teachers' College, had to take charge of rural schools. In so doing, the Department recognized that, if rural schools are to achieve their best, there must be over them trained personalities. Unfortunately, too often this kind of teacher cannot be procured.

Till 1902 the teacher was expected to keep each class or grade working separately; consequently the older time-tables showed separate work for each class in every half-hour or lesson period. This increased the difficulty of working; and experience proved it was not always necessary, and, under most teachers, not always best for the children. The rural school is now usually worked as four groups or classes, occasionally as two, and very occasionally as one. The problem of grouping is not yet finally solved.

Agriculture.—Fortified by the experience of other lands, and by its belief in the place agriculture should occupy in the curriculum for educational and national reasons, the Technical Education Commission recommended that "facilities be afforded . . . for the instruction of State-school pupils of rural districts in the rudiments of agriculture, horticulture, etc., and for the establishment of school gardens wherever practical; and that arrangements be made for the training of . . . teachers for this purpose." The years passed, and we heard little of agriculture for rural schools in Victoria. In the program of 1902, after occupations came the words "gardening may be substituted"; and, in science and occupations in 1920, we find "practical work in agriculture or horticultural

ture" for Grades V.-VIII. The other subjects remained; the advance seemed slow and small.

We have to look beneath the surface here. In reality much was being done. Progressive teachers and inspectors were grappling with the problem, and forming the experience on which the Department would act. Teachers were being trained by summer schools at Dookie, Ballarat, the Werribee Research Farm, and the State Schools' Horticultural Society's garden at Oakleigh.

These "classes" for teachers were symptomatic that many teachers had found in agriculture the means of teaching science and of linking school and life. Indoor and outdoor experiments relating to the problems of the farm, wholly performed by the children, were conducted; and these grew in scope and in value. Definite aims were set before the pupils, and the procedure was scientific throughout. To add interest, competitions were arranged within the same school, and sometimes between schools.

The growth of this work and the interest evoked by it in teachers, pupils, and parents, led to its better organization.* In a few districts, one of the ablest teachers was appointed organizer, and, receiving additional assistance in his school, was expected to give direction and oversight to all the work by visits, lectures, meetings, circulars, and reports. Under him were group supervisors, men who had attended schools of instruction and taken a special interest in the subject. The group conferences under the supervisor—4 to 10 teachers called twice a year in Departmental time to take stock and discuss every phase and every difficulty—are now acknowledged to be a most important means of uplift and progress.

The home project is a further extension of the teaching of agriculture and a further step in throwing the child upon himself in solving problems.

*In this connection, special credit should be given to Mr. Inspector J. W. Gray and to his first organiser, the late Mr. R. H. Cook.

The children are taught the scientific method of pursuing or testing some agricultural operation, and are then asked to try it at home. If any agree to do so, the conditions are carefully stated. Thus, in testing the value of a cow in £. S. D. for the lactation period, the milk had to be weighed and recorded twice daily, a test taken weekly, and a record book kept in a particular way.* There is no question of the value of the discipline thus self-imposed, or of the value of such education to the home and the nation. Some inspectors are now extending the home-project idea to other subjects. The discussion at present is mainly on the amount of extra responsibility thrown on the teacher, or on the scientific value of some of the work.

The State Schools' Horticultural Society.—No better instance of initiative within the Department, and no more fascinating story of success crowning enthusiastic work, can be given than that of this society.

Little or no recognition was given by the Department before 1902 to the teachers who spent time in school gardens. Soon afterwards, however, it offered prizes, and its example was followed by the A.N.A. There came a great stimulus to the whole movement by the institution of Arbor Day, and this was increased by the appointment of the late Mr. J. P. McLennan as Supervisor of Agriculture in 1908.

In January, 1911, mainly through the efforts of Mr. C. E. Isaac, who had at more than one school shown what could be done with a school garden, the Victorian State Schools' Horticultural Society, with a delegate from every inspectorate, and with Mr. Isaac himself as secretary, was formed. Within eighteen months, it could report that 650 schools were affiliated.

In 1913, in response to an appeal to members for money to purchase a site for a nursery and a distri-

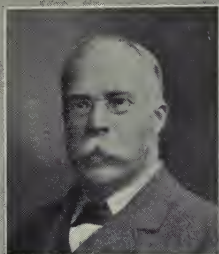
*An interesting account of this home project is given in *Echoes* (the Sale inspectorate journal) for December, 1921.

buting center, £300 was subscribed, and the present nursery at Oakleigh came into existence. In the same year, Sir Alexander Peacock (Minister of Public Instruction) promised an annual grant of £300 under certain conditions; and, in the following year, Mr. Isaac, at the request of the society, was appointed Supervisor of School Gardening.

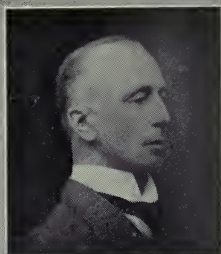
From this onwards, the success of the society has been astonishing. Its wages bill, which began with 7s. 6d. per week in 1913, is now £1,000 per annum. Over 1,000 schools (or one half of the State schools) are now affiliated. In a recent year, 21,000 packets of seeds, 550,000 seedlings, 10,000 budded roses, 5,000 dahlias, 4,500 chrysanthemums, and 125,000 mixed trees and shrubs were distributed among affiliated schools. Several teachers have undertaken to establish nurseries for special plants at their own schools. Many successful exhibitions in horticulture in suitable centers throughout the State have been held. Summer schools for teachers have been well attended; and, after a Certificate of Competency in Horticulture had been instituted, 100 teachers sat for the first examinations. In 1919, a special Flower Day raised £3,000 for a reserve fund, and, with part of this, large glass-houses were erected, and the stock was greatly increased.

Advances Made and to be Made.—Twenty years ago, the rural school-building was often shabby and mean, and the teacher's residence was too often far beneath the dignity of his office. The Hon. A. O. Sachse, when Minister from 1903-1908, strove to have finer schools and more fitting residences erected; and later Ministers have followed this example. Unfortunately, in recent years, the amount of money required for schools was so great that little or none was available for residences.

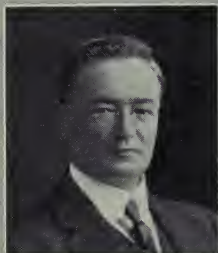
The interest in agriculture and in horticulture has changed parts of the former neglected grounds into fertile plots and beautiful gardens; and, in some dry areas, windmill pumps supply the necessary



MR JOHN BYATT.



MR P.M.CAREW-SMYTH.



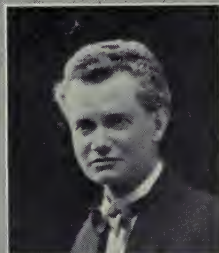
MR J.T.SAXTON.



DR J.A.LEACH.



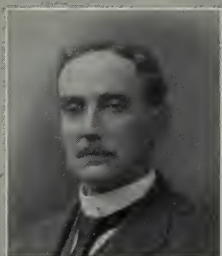
MR C.E.ISAAC



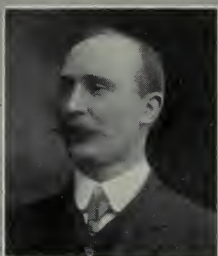
MR A.B.LANE

ORGANIZERS IN SPECIAL SUBJECTS:

Mr. Byatt (manual training), Mr. Carew-Smyth (drawing),
 Mr. Saxton (physical science), Dr. Leach (nature-study),
 Mr. Isaac (formerly horticulture), Mr. Lane (singing).



MR A. FUSSELL.



MR M. P. HANSEN.



MR DONALD CLARK.



MR J. H. BETHERAS.



MR J. McRAE.



MR M. H. BOTTOMS.

ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICERS, 1922:

Mr. Fussell, Chief Inspector and Chairman of the Committee of Classifiers; Mr. Hansen, Chief Inspector of High Schools; Mr. Clark, Chief Inspector of Technical Schools; Messrs. Betheras and McRae, Assistant Chief Inspectors; Mr. Bottoms, Secretary.

water. Shady trees are in growth, and the deeper interest in the children is seen in the play pavilions without, and the libraries with books and magazines within. The deeper interest in education is further seen in the provision made to coach the upper children for the Intermediate and higher examinations by correspondence.

All these forms of progress were possible only through the training of the teachers, and through the bestowal on them of more freedom. Besides the agricultural schools already mentioned, there has been held in the rural school at the Teachers' College, each September or October for several years, a refresher school for rural-school teachers. The ordinary program is worked; but special lessons are taught if desired, monitors are employed, and all difficulties and points of interest are discussed at the after meeting. In some inspectorial districts, the group system, developed to foster the teaching of agriculture in a locality, has been extended to the ordinary curriculum; and it has been found that a few teachers thus gathered together for mutual benefit will discuss freely, and will derive more benefit than from larger meetings. The conference of the inspector with his teachers at yearly or six-monthly intervals is always an uplifting agency. They discuss together plans and methods of work. A better feeling is created, and the inspector's visit to each school becomes a natural part or result of the conference.

The latest advance is a school magazine for the inspectorial district. It represents every school, and may reach every home. The most remote school through it can feel that it is part of a great organization, the aim of which is the nation's welfare; and parents and teachers can feel that their interest in the children's progress is one and the same. Much credit is due to Mr. C. S. Osborne, of the Ensay School (East Gippsland), who, a year or so ago, issued the first of the elementary-school magazines.

Their remoteness from towns and the importance

of their work for the community demand that the farming population should have good schools and good teachers. The country girl has to be considered as well as the country boy; and the farmer's home life must be catered for as well as his farm. The education given to the children should develop in them a love of the beautiful, an understanding of great thoughts and great books, an appreciation of what science has done and can do to improve the home and to help the farmer, a knowledge of the relation of the country to the city and of the aims of government, and the habits and ideals which bespeak self-mastery and the consideration of the rights of others. The rural school under many teachers has attained, or is attaining, these high aims.

Beyond the aims just stated, the rural school must not lose the tradition of giving a broad, generous education to the children in all districts, however remote; so that those of ability may have their gifts cultivated and their ambition fostered, and may be able to seize and make use of the higher advantages and opportunities now offered, and so in course of time may rise to the highest positions in the professions or in other walks of life.

CHAPTER XXV.

THE INSPECTOR, INSPECTION, AND EXAMINATION.

The Old Regime.—The history of the system of payment by results centers round the inspector.

A great number of teachers were untrained except in so far as they had been through the pupil-teacher course, and many of them had only moderate scholastic qualifications. Moreover, as rural schools were usually far apart, teachers could seldom meet for consultation and advice. Despite these conditions, there arose a system of rural schools which challenged admiration from all competent judges, an elementary-school system of methodized instruction, which, in its own way, produced thoroughness, and a devotion to duty on the part of the teachers which won unstinted praise from the members of the Technical Education Commission. The man to whom much of all this was due was the inspector.

The inspector led a strenuous life. The half-yearly visits to the schools in his wide district necessitated long journeys over unformed roads and in all kinds of weather, with the discomforts of a bush hotel at the end of the day. After the inspector's visit, the teacher would sometimes accompany him for a mile or so. While the inspector drove, he would also give advice to the young, lonely, and inexperienced worker. In the evening, at the corner of the table in the so-called "commercial room," with much noise around him, he would write his reports. In the morning, he was early at the breakfast table and off on the road again.

It must be admitted that there were inspectors and inspectors, and that some were not too sympathetic or considerate; but there were the others. Though

there was little time for reading, the best inspectors read and kept abreast of educational thought and practice in other lands; administrative headquarters gave little encouragement to initiative, but these inspectors encouraged originality and experiment. Though the rigidity of the system they were administering tended towards the mechanical, they did not lose the human note.

In the days of payment by results, had there not been progressive men on the inspecting staff, and progressive men and women among the teachers, the system which then obtained would have subdued the minds of pupils, teachers, and inspectors to fixed, unchanging modes of thought and action. Fortunately, among the strongest advocates for the abolition of the system were several of the inspectors. This was the bright side of the picture; the darker side presented the inspector as a conscious machine carrying out arbitrary instructions, and having little room for the exercise of humane feeling. The system tempted him to consider himself the final authority on the teaching of every subject, and caused the teachers to defer to his idiosyncrasies.

The New Regime.—The appointment of a Director in 1902 brought a feeling of relief. It heralded emancipation from rigidity and narrow ideals. At conferences of inspectors, the Director interpreted the new ideals by declaring that, henceforth, the inspector was to consider himself a superintendent, and, as such, to encourage, guide, and inspire. In order to afford opportunity to ascertain the teacher's aims, and to encourage thought and experiment, less time was to be spent in individual examination. This greater freedom was to react on the child in encouraging observation, inquiry into natural phenomena, wider reading, and the expression of the child's thoughts in oral and written speech.

Inspectors called conferences of teachers to discuss the aims and the details of the new syllabus. The Director did much propagandism in various parts of

the State. Demonstration schools were organized, and the mode of examination was changed.

Then came a slight reaction. There were still the facts of the untrained teacher, the inspector's numerical estimate of the teacher's worth, the promotion list, the influence of the conservative among inspectors and teachers. All had grown so accustomed to the fixed methods of former days that teachers were afraid that some inspectors would, under the new freedom, demand the impossible. Senior officials feared that, if the duties of inspectors were not definitely prescribed, some subjects in a school might escape official testing.

Still, there was the definite step forward. The old "Confidential Instructions to Inspectors" were cancelled in favor of instructions that were published in the *Education Gazette* for all to see. In this charter of inspection, it was laid down that every inspection visit should result in some definite gain to the school. Greater allowance was made for children recently enrolled, and for the fact that the teacher might have been recently appointed to take charge. The head teacher was to examine his school twice in the year. Provision was made for exempting efficient schools from examination for a year or two.

With the object of being fair to teachers, examination papers in arithmetic and grammar were issued to the inspectors. The issue ceased in 1912, when they were rendered unnecessary by new prescriptions for the Qualifying and Merit Certificate examinations, and by a further advance in methods of examining schools.

When the nature of an inspector's examination in 1900 is compared with that of 1922, the change in the spirit and attitude of the inspector is manifest.

The present system makes for co-operation. Both teacher and inspector have a voice in the written questions, and both take part in the oral examination. A discussion before the report is written enables the inspector to write his report with more justice to the

teacher. An inspector often gives a demonstration lesson, and, in larger schools, may give a helpful address after a conference with the school staff. The inspector is not a Departmental official only, but is the organizing head teacher of his district.

Developments may be traced, too, by the following particulars regarding certificates issued to pupils:—

Certificate of Exemption.—A short history of this certificate appears elsewhere. It was abolished in 1910.

Qualifying Examination.—This examination was instituted in November, 1912, as the qualification for entrance to high schools, higher elementary schools, central classes, and junior technical schools. The standard is that of the sixth grade in the elementary school. Pupils who enrol in one of the above-mentioned schools, or who remain in the elementary school, must take a course for the Merit Certificate.

The Merit Certificate.—In 1905, comprehension, elementary science, and manual training were added to the examination. Candidates had to spend two years in the sixth class, as it was then called. It was prescribed that 80 per cent. had to be gained in arithmetic, and 60 per cent. in other subjects. Authority was given for conducting the examination in centers. In November, 1912, the subjects of examination were as before, but the standard of the eighth grade was exacted, and 60 per cent. in all subjects constituted a pass. The regulations of 1920 prescribed 60 per cent. for a pass in mathematics and English; and an average of 50 per cent. in geography, history, and mental arithmetic, provided that not less than 25 per cent. was gained in any one of these three subjects. Under certain conditions, a candidate who has completed a satisfactory course of two years after passing the Qualifying examination may, on the recommendation of the head teacher and the confirmation of the inspector, be awarded the certificate without examination.

The Inspector's Report and Numerical Estimate.—

On the whole, the form of the report has not altered much. Throughout, it is a picture of the school at work; of the spirit infused into it by the teacher and the method he employs; of the visible signs of his interest in all that pertains to the education of the children; of the state of the furniture, building, fences, and grounds; together with statistical information for the Office and an estimate of the teacher's worth. It is this report which furnishes the data on which the teacher is assessed. Hence the hopes and fears connected with the inspector's visit. In determining estimates, the following factors are taken into account—(1) grounds and buildings, (2) organization, (3) instruction, (4) discipline. In all cases, instruction receives the highest marks.

Much discussion has taken place round the numerical estimate. The chief defect urged against it as an instrument of mechanical perfection is the varying standards of inspectors. This drawback is realized; and, besides other safeguards, a new estimate which is out of harmony with the teacher's general history is investigated by a senior administrative officer.

No one has yet been able to suggest a more equitable way of classifying a teacher. The evolution of time, with its emphasis on experiment and initiative, brings the hope that, unless all results justify it, an unchanging value will not be attached to any particular method or any particular point of view; but, perhaps, the solution of the problem lies in a longer, fuller, and finer training of the teacher.

Examination Form and Retardation.—While the inspection report is concerned with the school as a whole, and particularly with an estimate of the worth of the teacher, the examination form is particularly concerned with the progress of the children as shown by examination results. Three variations have succeeded one another in the twenty years of progress since 1900. The first was the record of the results

of the examination of every child in every subject by the inspector. The second (after 1904) gave the class-mark awarded in each subject to each grade by the inspector as a result of individual testing or of group testing, and also a summary of the promotion of the children in each class by the teacher. The present form has on one side a list of the staff, and on the other a summary of the attainments of the pupils with their ages, gathered from the teacher's records and from the inspector's own testing. The advance shown in these forms is from the inspector's testing to the teacher's internal examination.

The first or oldest of these forms had a mathematical completeness that the others lack. It became a mechanical standard, deadening to intellectual and spiritual growth; but, to the inspectors trained under the result system, it was regarded with satisfaction. In the present examination report, the efficiency marks of the inspector are placed side by side with those of the teacher. There is an advance towards the recognition of the teacher as a professional worker and of his special knowledge of the pupils. The advance already made has produced a more natural and wholesome relation between inspector and teacher.

Retardation.—On the examination form is a graph of retardation. Its presence marks a new step in the investigation of the development of the pupil. It is the step forward in the recognition by the Department that every pupil should advance according to his ability.

The Department had always endeavored to prevent teachers from retarding pupils, especially in the infants' classes, and, by deciding that 60 per cent. of promotions in one year is satisfactory, had recognized that pupils cannot advance equally. In 1912, when the course of study for eight grades was introduced, it was understood that the normal child entering school at six should advance one grade each year, and so be prepared for a junior scholarship at 14½ years. Neither teachers nor inspectors at first perceived that

this meant 100 per cent. of promotions of normal children each year, nor did anyone clearly see all that was involved in this attempt to give the normal child a chance of gaining a junior scholarship and a free secondary education.

One result of the discussions aroused by investigation was the devising of the retardation graph, and the requirement that all head teachers should fill it in at the beginning of each half-year. Owing to this, a more regular promotion of younger pupils, and a more rapid promotion of bright pupils, have been secured; although there has not been wanting the fear that, if care be not exercised, children may be forced to progress beyond their abilities.

Recognition of all the facts has led to a deeper consideration of the whole problem, and to the investigation of intelligence tests as used by Binet of France, Terman of America, Burt of England, and others. Several inspectors and teachers are now busy with these tests; and out of the investigation will come a more accurate idea of the normal and the supernormal, a better understanding of the teacher's duty towards each type, and a new graph based on "mental" age.

The Inspectorate.—The duties and responsibility of inspectors call for a high standard of culture, of temperament, of tact, and of judgment. High scholarship on the one hand and experience as a teacher on the other are needed to give breadth of view and length of perspective, and to fit the inspectors to be leaders in their profession. The old regime was exacting in the demands of its mechanical procedure, and inspectors were too few; the new time imposes more onerous responsibilities through its manifold developments and the very freedom it allows. Few realize the multitude of an inspector's responsibilities, the long hours of his labor, and the severity of its strain. The Victorian Department is fortunate in the men who, at the present time, are maintaining

the best traditions of the position, and who, by ungrudging service, are advancing the cause of education and preparing for the greater freedom of the future.*

*Of the men who have labored and passed away since 1900, Mr. H. F. Rix deserves to be specially remembered. Working under the result system, he foresaw the new day and strove to make it possible. His enthusiasm, his industry, his initiative, his research, and his sympathy made him a great inspector and a leader in educational reforms.

CHAPTER XXVI.

THE HIGH SCHOOL.

Beginnings: Melbourne High School.—As has been observed in earlier chapters, Victoria made no provision in the Education Acts prior to 1901 for a State system of secondary education. The first intimation of an advance in that direction was given in an article in the press of November 18th, 1904, entitled “Important Step in State Education: Continuation Schools to be Established.” In this article was the statement that “this is the first step towards State secondary schools in Victoria.” That such a step was about to be taken led to much controversy, but the Minister (the Hon. A. O. Sachse) stood firm, and the Melbourne Continuation School was opened in February, 1905. It was housed in an old but well-known building—the Model School, erected in 1854 under the National Board of Education.

During the next four years, similar continuation schools were established at Bendigo, Geelong, and Castlemaine. Concurrently with these developments, another type of vocational school fitted to meet country requirements—the agricultural high school—was founded at Warrnambool, Sale, Ballarat, Shepparton, and Wangaratta. Both classes of school had to face much opposition in their early days. But time and the event have justified the step that was taken in 1905.

As the Melbourne Continuation School (now the Melbourne High School) is the oldest of these schools, as it laid the foundations on which the superstructure of State secondary education was built, as it is unique among scholastic institutions in its correspondence branches, and as its success typifies the success of all the others, a few lines may be given to its career.

Since its opening, it has been under the headmastership of Mr. J. Hocking, B.A., and, to his powers of organization and high conception of standards and of duty, much of the success of the school is due. He has been ably assisted by his headmistress, Miss Margery Robertson, who retired at the end of 1921, and by successive staffs of capable and loyal assistants.

On the opening day in 1905, 219 pupils faced a staff of six assistants with the principal. In the present year, there are over 800 pupils and a staff of 48. As every pupil on entering has gained the Merit Certificate at least, and is over thirteen years of age, it is the largest purely secondary school in Victoria.

If a high proportion of passes in examinations indicates excellence, this school ranks high. In December, 1906, 32 pupils presented for the Junior Public examination, and 27 passed. At the end of 1921, 243 of its pupils passed the Intermediate examination, and 133 the Leaving Certificate examination gaining 81 honors. Besides these passes, a large number of Senior scholarships was won. In a memorandum prepared by the University in 1919, it was stated that no other school sent so many students to the University.

From its opening till 1908 it taught all the metropolitan junior teachers in evening classes; and, since 1908, it has taught all the junior teachers of the State either in evening classes or by correspondence. Counting the 600 young people of its correspondence classes, the 400-600 students of its evening classes, and its 800 school pupils, it is influencing the lives of 2,000 young persons every week throughout the year.

Its motto is part of Thring's great utterance—"Honour the work." Throughout the State, in many walks of life, its pupils are honoring the work by the service they are rendering. On all fronts and in all arms of the service in the Great War, its old boys honored the work by patriotic devotion, and the ninety of them who laid down their lives honored it supremely. In a cemetery in Alexandria, a monu-

ment stands over the grave of one of those who died of wounds received on Gallipoli, and, on it, the school-mate who erected it wrote the old motto thus rendered, "He honored the work."

Progress.—In 1905, there was only one Departmental secondary school. In 1910, there were 10 schools, the pupils numbered 1,338, and the teachers 52. In 1912, eight new schools were opened. To-day, the 31 schools contain 6,980 pupils taught by a staff of 232 teachers. Besides these, there are the higher elementary schools, the junior technical schools, and central schools of different kinds, all providing some form of secondary education.

It is typical of the obstacles that have beset the path of the reformer in Victorian education that practically no new type of school has been tried unless it could be housed at little initial cost in some old and abandoned school-building, or could be attached to an existing school.

Of the secondary schools that were early established, Melbourne, Ballarat, and Bendigo were so housed; and, when, in 1910, the University High School was opened, a disused State-school building was furbished up for its use. It was not until the present year (1922) that financial provision was made for improved accommodation for the Melbourne High School and the University High School. Apart from these two schools and one country school, all high schools now possess commodious, well-lighted, and well-ventilated buildings. The most recent erections of the quadrangle pattern are models of convenience and suitability.

The problem of staffing was also serious. Very few of the early staffs had had any previous experience of secondary teaching. The success achieved is a standing testimony to the ability, determination, adaptability, and resourcefulness of the pioneers who laid the foundations so well, and of their successors who have built so sound a structure upon those foundations.

The schools to-day are excellently staffed and excellently organized. Every teacher is a specialist in some subject or group of subjects, and nearly everyone possesses a degree and the Diploma of Education. No private schools can claim to have better qualified staffs, or staffs more devoted to their work. But zeal and devoted service on the part of the teachers and even more generous financial provision than has been the case would have availed little if the schools had not received the whole-hearted support of the public. The residents of country towns have been quick to see the advantages of a local high school. In spite of the somewhat stringent conditions, there have been many more demands than it is possible, with the increased cost of building and the difficult financial situation, to satisfy. As instances of the interest displayed, it may be mentioned that Ballarat provided 30 acres and £3,000, Bendigo five acres near the center of the city and £1,500, Williamstown four acres and £3,000, and Colac ten acres and £1,500—all at a time when the purchasing power of money was at least double what it is to-day. Many generous gifts for equipment, beautifying of grounds, and scholarships, have been made. In this connexion, much public-spirited service has been rendered by the advisory councils. Not the least valuable feature has been the development of keen local pride and interest in all the activities of the school. In many towns, no civic function is considered complete without the participation of the local high school.

The object in establishing these schools was to bridge the gap between the elementary school and the University, and to provide facilities for further education for all boys and girls of ability irrespective of the financial or social status of their parents. The first aim is to provide a good general education, mental, physical, and moral, which shall fit the pupil to play his part as a citizen of a modern democracy. The second is to give the training necessary for his future life-work, and to enable him to make the

right use of leisure. Special attention is devoted to manual training and agricultural science for boys and domestic arts and science for girls. Courses in commercial subjects are being put into operation as fast as teachers can be trained for the work.

So far as examination results are a criterion of efficiency, the high schools have demonstrated their right to rank with the best secondary schools. For 1921, their pupils obtained 691 full passes at the Intermediate examination, 370 full passes at the Leaving examination, and 210 places in the Honor lists. They also gained 18 of the 40 Senior scholarships tenable at the University.

The latest development of the high-school movement is the establishment of hostels. Great care has always been taken by the principals to supervise the board and lodging of the pupils who must live away from home; but the larger life and social advantages of a school boarding establishment have been wanting. In 1907, and again in 1910, the principal of the Melbourne Continuation School prepared plans for the establishment of a hostel in Melbourne; but nothing was done. Then came local efforts in one or two country towns; and, now, there are five hostels for girls—two under religious bodies and three under advisory councils. The Department is sympathetic, makes provision for the lady teachers to reside in the hostels and exercise control, grants a contribution each year towards their maintenance, and would be delighted to see them established in connexion with every high school.

The Agricultural High Schools.—The first of them was opened in 1907, and it was thought that a new era in education had dawned. One-third of the time was to be given to farm and experimental work, one-third to agricultural science, manual work, and drawing, and one-third to English, history, and subjects of general education. This was the full agricultural course; but it was not made compulsory for all pupils.

All boys, however, were required to study agricultural science.

The report of the Scottish Commission on Agricultural Education which visited Australia in 1910 speaks of them in the highest praise as follows: "In Victoria, we found the agricultural high school at its best." Yet no one can contend that these schools have won their way into the hearts and confidence of the farmers. It may be that it is too expensive to keep the boys away from home, it may be that the boy is too useful at home to permit of his remaining at school, it may be that the teachers have not yet proved their practical skill to the satisfaction of the farmers, it may be that the school is ahead of its time and that Victoria has not yet arrived at the stage of intensive scientific cultivation; but, whatever is the reason, only a few of the boys attending take the full course.

There is evidence that the experimental work done at such places at Leongatha, Shepparton, and Sale is receiving increased attention. The research now being conducted in regard to citrus and vine cultivation in Mildura had its origin in the local high school. In various centers, such as Kerang, lectures for farmers given in the evening have been well attended. In others, for example, Colac, and Shepparton, the domestic science teacher has undertaken courses for nurses and for the women of the district.

In all these, as in other high schools, every effort is made to adapt the curriculum to local needs and to make the courses as practical as possible. In addition, much of the apparatus required in the laboratories is made in the manual-training center, and farm implements are made and repaired in the blacksmith shop or the carpentry shed. The girls have not been overlooked, the work in cookery and needlework is related to home conditions as much as possible.

The Larger Life of the High Schools: The Future.—The work of the high schools is not, however, limited to instruction in the class-room, on the farm, or in

the manual-training center. The organization and development of physical training, swimming, and games have been brought to a high degree of excellence, and the flourishing district associations with their spirited annual competitions and inter-school matches bear witness to the interest taken in athletics. Apart from games, organizations, such as the debating society, the dramatic and concert club, the school orchestra, the camera club, the reading circle, and the school magazine, afford pupils further opportunities for the cultivation of individual interests. The annual concert of the high school is eagerly anticipated in many schools. Flourishing old pupils' associations have been formed, and have given support to the schools. In all patriotic and many philanthropic movements, the high schools have rendered great assistance to local efforts. The high school is thus often an important center of intellectual and social activity in the town and district.

In the seventeen years they have been at work, the high schools have done much. In 1900, we learn from the Minister's report that about 5 per cent. of the school population over twelve years of age were receiving a secondary education in private schools. In 1920, about 14 per cent. of the school population over twelve were in some kind of a secondary school, and, of these pupils, for every nine in registered schools there were seven in State schools. The future of secondary education will lie largely in the hands of the State.

CHAPTER XXVII.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION: GENERAL.

In the last forty years, increasing interest in democracy and in State systems of education has convinced competent observers that it is wrong to let young people leave the schools at fourteen with the idea that their education is finished. From the point of view of personal development, of citizenship, and of vocation, their education has just begun. Consequently, it is now contended that, if at that age they must leave school, their education should be continued to meet these three ends. This is continued education, broad-based, but applied to the needs of life. Recently, an urgent and narrow demand has come from the need for skilled workers—the demand that there should be trade classes to impart to workers higher skill and, if needs be, extended knowledge. In this view, personal and citizen aims are lost sight of. Another demand is probably the oldest. When the conscious application of science developed and even transformed industry, the need of schools for imparting the necessary mathematics, science, and drawing, and the requisite skill for foremen, leaders, and master-workmen was perceived, and these were provided. Technical education is sometimes loosely used to cover all these three kinds of class or school.

In the narrower sense, technical education has been defined as “specialized instruction in all branches of knowledge, and in the application of these and of scientific processes to industrial undertakings.” In the wider sense, its aim is “generally to effect an improvement in the intelligence and efficiency of the workers of every occupation, and to enable the manufacturer, the merchant, the manager, the foreman,

the workman, the farmer, and the housewife to play their part better in the industrial, commercial, agricultural, and domestic life of the country.”

There can be little room for doubt that mistakes were made in the establishment of the complicated educational machinery of technical education in this State. In the first glow of enthusiasm, it was too frequently believed that the establishment of a school ensured a steady stream of learners. When disillusionment came, but before the authorities had learned how to adapt the school to what was needed, the “boom” burst; and, in the impoverishment that followed, both they and the workers grew disheartened, or merely plodded along without much vision or hope.

The Royal Commission on Technical Education.—The commission came when things had somewhat revived. It helped to make men think, and to ask what is “technical” education. The British mind (whether in England or in the Dominions) has been slow to recognize that education and life-work may mutually help each other. To it the school is an institution apart from the serious business of life, and the schoolmaster is the last person to help in trade, manufacture, handwork, farming, etc. The value of evening classes in imparting the writing, arithmetic, book-keeping, drawing, etc., necessary to the trade was sometimes admitted, and these were encouraged. It was not, however, perceived that right instruction could add interest to an occupation by cultivating intelligence regarding it, that science in its application to industry could be taught and would be learned with more appreciation if the learners were engaged in the industry, and that instruction might go farther and teach the processes of a trade itself. The school was, no doubt, to blame in its formal methods, and in its traditional plan of teaching theory apart from actual practice. Exceptions were to be found both among teachers and employers and workers in all British lands, and to them are due the experiments and advances made; but, from the national point of

view, British lands were slower at the beginning to seize the value of, and to make use of, technical schools than several of the European nations.

At the time of the commission, there were 10 school of mines, 5 schools of art, and 3 colleges providing some kind of technical instruction. According to the commission, many of them had been established by political influence with little regard to the needs of their districts. After 1893, the yearly grant for buildings, which had been over £3,000 that year and over £9,000 in each of the four previous years, fell each year till 1898 below £400, and one year reached the ridiculous sum of £4. In 1898-9, it mounted to over £7,000, and, the following year, to £9,000. (In no year since 1912 has it fallen below £6,000; and, in each of two years, it rose above £27,000.)

Twenty-two science subjects and thirteen trade subjects were on the curriculum, but were not taught at all schools: trade subjects, for example, were taught in the Working Men's College, Ballarat, Geelong, and Bendigo. In 1900, there were enrolled, 5,002 students; but the average per term was 3,015. The total expenditure for the year was £26,225.

Salaries varied for work of a similar kind in different schools. There was no promotion, and there were no increments. Few teachers were permanent or whole-time workers. Yet capable and devoted teachers were in the schools. In the trying years which followed 1893, many classes at the Working Men's College were kept going because the staff agreed to give their services for nominal pay.

Period 1900-1910.—Many agents and factors encouraged the growth in the public mind of Victoria, during the years 1900-1910, of a belief in the value of technical education, and many experiments and advances were made.

The Director in his early reports called attention "to the gap between primary and technical schools," and to the "need for continuation classes" to fill it;

to the absurdity of schools of mines and schools of art in purely agricultural districts. "They keep up a precarious existence," he remarked, "by means of a Government subsidy, and arouse no local support." (The names of a number of these were changed soon afterwards to technical schools.) Later, he pointed out that Victoria cannot hope to maintain more than four or five elaborate technical schools; the others should be science or art schools doing advanced continuation work. He complained of the lack of local support, saying, "Out of 17 schools, 10 in the preceding year contributed £51. Only 4,958 students attended in 1903, and much of their work was really 'continuation work'." For a live system he desired "the sympathetic co-operation of the employers and fostering legislative conditions."

In the year 1900, Mr. P. M. Carew-Smyth, A.R.C.A. (Lond.), was appointed Art Inspector and Supervisor. It is difficult now to compute the amount and the value of the services he has rendered to the State. He has directed, since his appointment, the ever-expanding work of art in the ever-expanding system of State education—in elementary schools, in high schools, in junior technical schools, in technical art schools, and in technical training; and has seen his subject, at first too often despised, become one of the most important subjects of the technical schools.

During a period of about nine months, beginning in September, 1906, there sat, at varying intervals, the first conference on apprenticeship. It was convened by the Chief Secretary (Sir Samuel Gillott); its chairman was the Hon. Theodore Fink, and five members represented the Chamber of Manufactures, and five the employees. At the commencement, it agreed that the "progress of industry was seriously threatened by the defective system of industrial training." From answers to a circular, it decided that "it is clear . . . there has been no general recognition of the necessity for complete industrial

skill being based on any sufficient educational standard beyond the elementary State-school curriculum, or as to a sufficient standard of technical instruction." The growth of trade classes, apprenticeship schools, and technical schools in Britain, Europe, and the United States of America was noted; and Mr. Campbell, Director of the Working Men's College, gave evidence before it that the demand for similar classes and schools in Victoria was greater than the supply.

The claims of youth to training, especially manual, it affirmed, are paramount. Manual and practical training should be begun before fourteen years, and a scheme of education including it should be continued after fourteen. The unemployed problem, it concluded, is largely a problem of unskilled labor. There should be, it recommended, a minimum of compulsory attendance at continuation classes enforced on all boys under seventeen; but it considered that this and other problems would be solved when there was a trade guild to teach craft, having for its aims the development of the industrial and moral character of masters, journeymen, and apprentices, and the supervision of training.

Perhaps the most important recommendation was for a permanent apprenticeship commission to supervise and direct the apprenticeship system. Apart from the report, the newspaper summaries, the discussions, and the education of its members, no definite result ensued from the work of this commission.

The most important Act affecting technical education in this State was the Educational Act passed in December, 1910 (No. 2301). It provided for higher elementary schools and for district high schools, for compulsory continued education, and for founding new technical schools. The course of study in district high schools should include science, manual training (with workshop practice), domestic arts (for girls); and it might be varied to provide a theoretical and practical training in subjects bearing on the in-

dustrial requirements of the locality. Besides technical schools, trade schools and preparatory trade schools could be established. Also, with the consent of the governing body and after terms had been agreed upon, any existing technical school could become "the property of the Minister, and, subject to him, shall be under the control and management of the Education Department." Regulations were to be drafted for the appointment, promotion, and payment of teachers, and for the inspection of schools and grants to schools.

This great Act was the outcome of the Technical Education Commission, of the Director's visits abroad, of his reports and addresses, of the stir and discussion he had occasioned in the domain of education, of apprenticeship and other conferences, and of the faithful work of many teachers in many institutions.

Period 1911—1921.—This is a period of rapid growth. The Department has a definite policy. A supervising inspector is appointed; and councils are required to fulfil their responsibilities. A permanent staff is created. The relations of the technical school to other educational institutions are being fixed. Employers and unions begin to perceive its value. Moreover, it is, on the whole, in political favor.

In March, 1911, Mr. Donald Clark, M.M.E., B.C.E., who had been in charge of the Bairnsdale and Bendigo Schools of Mines, was appointed Chief Inspector of Technical Schools; and to their organization and development he has given himself with unsparing diligence ever since. In his reports for the years 1911 to 1915, he discussed the position of technical education, its separation from the University Public examinations, the need of a permanent staff, the necessity for training teachers, its relation to high and higher elementary schools, courses of instruction, examiners, the councils, trade classes, and day junior technical schools. The technical school to him has its own

place: it cannot gain its pupils either from secondary schools or evening schools. Tradesmen, he considered, should have to pass a test for registration; and there should be special schools for special industries.

At the 1912 conference on education in Victoria, Mr. F. A. Campbell (Principal of the Working Men's College), in a paper on "The Training of the Artisan," pointed out that manufactures in Victoria had increased from £9,185,000 in 1904 to £14,189,000 in 1910, and were now the leading source of wealth. If this is to be increased, he continues, the skill of the artisan must be improved. Surveying the leading countries of the world, he showed the necessity for trade and technical schools working under the control of trade guilds or wages boards. The craftsman's intelligence should be cultivated, and, to achieve this, the education given by the school should not be theoretical but adapted to his ability, training, and needs.

On the 15th April, 1913, a second conference on apprenticeship was called by the Hon. John Murray, Chief Secretary (the Hon. W. A. Watt, Premier). Mr. Fink was again chairman, and there were leading representatives of both parties in the House, of the Chamber of Manufactures, and of the Trades Hall Council. In its report, it expressed agreement with much of the report of the first conference, but pointed out that the situation was somewhat altered, inasmuch as the wages board in each trade had the power to fix the number of apprentices and to specify the term and form of indenture, etc. (The Federal Arbitration Court had also powers in respect to apprentices.) It recommended that wages boards be given powers to make regulations for the training and education of apprentices (if necessary in a technical school), to examine apprentices in theory and practice, to grant certificates, to hold conferences with educational bodies on the education of apprentices, and to hand over some of these powers to "trade

committees.” Instruction and examination by correspondence should be undertaken by wages boards.

The most marked feature of this period was the rapid growth of the junior technical school (which will be dealt with further in the next chapter). The next marked feature is the growth of technical schools in the metropolitan area. In 1899, the Working Men’s College was the only technical school in Greater Melbourne. This year, there are schools in Brighton, Brunswick, Collingwood, Caulfield, Footscray, Glenferrie (Swinburne), Prahran, Sunshine, South Melbourne, and West Melbourne. This growth raises at least one problem which we shall refer to later. Some of these schools arose through individual initiative, as that at Glenferrie through the Hon. Geo. Swinburne; and some through the energy of local councils, as that at Prahran.

Survey of Growth, Changes, Problems.—The number of students in senior technical schools increased between 1900 and 1920 from 3,015 to 14,415, and the State subsidy in the corresponding years from £26,000 to £127,000.

The number of students taking a complete “course” for at least a year in some branch of art, science, or trade has steadily risen.

There has been a change in the age and in the sex of students. For example, in the Working Men’s College (Prospectus for 1922):—

	1899		1920
Percentage of male students over 21	23.6	..	22.5
Percentage of female students, all ages	24.4	..	11.9
Percentage of male students under 21	57.4	..	65.6

The changing attitude of employers, unions, and the Arbitration Court may be gathered from the following instances:—

(a) Under the last Arbitration Court award, a junior apprentice or improver who has attended carpentry and joinery classes in technical schools for one year prior to engagement shall be entitled to 2/6 per week in addition to the fixed wage, and, if, in the third or any subsequent year, he produces a certificate to the effect that he has attended classes for two years and passed a specified examination, he shall be entitled to another 2/6 in addition to the fixed wage.

(b) In the agreement just completed between the Victorian Master Printers' Association and the Victorian Typographical Society, apprentices are to be indentured for six years. In their first and second years, they must attend at least one night per week at their own expense approved classes in English and arithmetic. During their third, fourth, and fifth years, they shall attend for one half-day per week, without loss of wages, the technical classes in printing at the Working Men's College. The employers shall pay the fees. The Working Men's College Printing Trade Advisory Committee shall include two members from each of the above bodies and two from the Overseas' Association. It shall set a pass standard for each year of technical instruction and amend the same as occasion requires. The apprentice who passes this standard shall receive a bonus of 2/6 per week for the following years in addition to the wages provided in his indenture—this means in his fourth year he may receive 2/6 extra, in his fifth year 5/- extra, and in his sixth year 7/6 extra. This is, for technical training, one of the most important agreements yet reached. There is in it the element of compulsion, so that the thoughtless or the unskilful will not escape; it provides a reward for diligence and for skill that all can appreciate; and it combines masters and workers in the education of the apprentice. It should be followed by many similar agreements.

(c) Since 1905, the Railway Commissioners have recognized the necessity for the attendance of their Railway Workshop apprentices at the Working Men's College for technical training. Owing, however, to certain defects in the working of the scheme, its educational aim has not been fully realized.

(d) The history of the technical training of plumbers shows that compulsion can easily be applied when applied in the right way. Several years ago, the Metropolitan Board of Works passed a regulation that no plumber, unless he possessed a licence granted on examination, would be allowed to do any sanitary plumbing. The examination could be held, either after five years' experience with a licensed plumber or after passing the Fourth Grade Plumbing (four years' course) at a technical school. The reward was sufficient, the reasons strong; so the men offered themselves for a four years' course at a technical school. They are keen at their work, inquiring,

and thoughtful, and, at the Swinburne Technical College, will return for an extra year's theory.

(e) There may be mentioned the course which the Navy mechanics of the Navy Office must attend, that for employees of the Harbor Trust, that for the employees of the City Council's Electric Lighting Works, and that for the electric-wiring workers of the Electricity Commissioners as further instances of compulsory methods which should extend to all classes of skilled and unskilled workers.

The problems to be solved by the technical school at the present time pertain to a living institution which has continually to readjust its aim, methods, and relations to an ever-changing environment. Many of the older technical schools still exist under their own councils, yet are under the supervision of the Department, and this leads at times to clashes and misunderstandings; but this state of things must be expected. Some of them have worked throughout in the most amicable way with the Department.

The technical school in smaller towns, if it exists at all, must relate itself to the elementary school, the high school, and the occupations of the district. In larger centers, it must also be adjusted to the University, and to boards and institutes in architecture, chemistry, etc. Its expert advisory boards, composed of masters, men, and teachers, should have something real to do in taking an interest in the education of the young workers belonging to their vocation. If the trade as a whole takes an interest in their welfare, the young will respond. Human development cannot get much sustenance out of regulations. Work rightly regarded can form a basis for culture, for all subjects of knowledge, for science and art, for moral training, and for citizenship.

The plan for training teachers is still in the initial stage. It was taken over by the Department from the West Melbourne Junior Technical School. Studentships for a five years' course are awarded to lads not less than 16 years of age who have passed the junior technical or an equivalent course, and who, in character and aptitude, are approved by the Chief Inspec-

tor of Technical Schools and the Art Inspector. During the first three years, they study for a diploma in their respective courses, and give six hours per week to actual teaching in a junior technical school; and the last two years they spend with firms at their trade, giving certain evenings to teaching practice and to the study of English and the theory of teaching. They are then bound to serve as teachers for four years. This system can provide teachers for the junior technical school and for the lower work in the senior; but its graduates have not the scientific attainments to enable them to teach the highest class in the latter, nor can they have the skill or experience to act as trade teachers. To win the respect of artisans and to be able to impart the highest skill in a trade, instructors of trade classes should have the salary and the rank of foremen. The University must still continue to supply the teachers for the advanced science and engineering classes.

In 1899, the Working Men's College was the only technical school in the metropolis; now there are ten others. Six are within about three miles of the Central Post Office, and these may compete with one another in the same subjects and kinds of trade classes.

The existence of so many schools in the metropolitan area raises another problem: Are they all to be of equal rank aiming at the same range and grade of work, or are some to be subordinate?

A third apprenticeship commission has just handed in its report to the Government. It has recommended a permanent apprenticeship commission, having subordinate trade committees to supervise apprenticeship and the technical education which is necessary to it.

It was the intention to give a short account of each of a number of the leading technical schools, but space forbids more than a few lines about two or three. To form any adequate conception of the range and magnitude of the work of these institutions, or

of their rapid development, a visit must be paid to one or more of them.

The Melbourne Technical School (formerly the Working Men's College) is not one institution, but many. Its numerous trade classes, its classes for wool-sorting and wool-classing, its great art department, and its diploma classes in all branches of engineering and assaying, with their 2,600 students, make of it a great hive of industry. As an indication of its growth, it may be pointed out that, in 1920, its income from all sources amounted to £44,822, whereas, in 1900, the State subsidy to all technical schools was £26,000.

The Ballarat School of Mines and Industries is the oldest of all the technical schools, and the holders of its diplomas have made its name known in many leading mining fields of the world. Its museum with its valuable collection of minerals proclaims the greatness of its past. By experimenting with Victorian clays to test their suitability for white earthenware, it is taking a great step forward in a new direction, and, in many ways, it is fitting its work to aid local industries.

The Swinburne Technical College is a fine instance of the co-operation between individual enterprise and municipal and Government aid, and between masters and men in technical education. Its rapid growth can be seen in its 1,500 students, and a visit to its art rooms will open the eyes of any visitor to the numerous applications of art to industry at the present time.

Every technical school, although it shares in many general features with others, has special features of its own. Under able principals and instructors, all are helping to solve one of the great problems of modern education—the relation of the school to industry.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

CONTINUED EDUCATION. THE YEARS TWELVE TO FIFTEEN. DOMESTIC ARTS.

Continued Education.—Continued education is a modern demand. It is sometimes confused with technical education, and technical education is sometimes used to include a part or all of it. It means a system of education for all young workers who are compelled by circumstances to enter upon an occupation at 14 or at the compulsory age. It may continue for two, three, four, or more years; and, usually, its classes are held in the time of the employers. It is wider than technical, because it has classes for unskilled as well as skilled labor, and for young clerks and others outside of hand-workers; and it is wider also in the sense that it lays emphasis on culture subjects, on training in citizenship, and on such subjects as physical training and hygiene. It has three aims: the developed individual, the intelligent, public-spirited citizen, and the efficient worker.

In its history, it has in many countries passed from the voluntary to the compulsory stages. In most English-speaking countries to-day, it is still in the former; in many continental nations, it has passed into the latter. In the large cities of England and Scotland, voluntary continued education could at its best secure only 60 per cent. of the young workers between fourteen and sixteen, at a time when commissions of inquiry revealed that, through blind-alley employments and in many other ways, society by its neglect was manufacturing the unemployed and the unemployable. Germany gets the credit of having advanced farthest on the road of compulsory continued educa-

tion; but, since the war, England by the Fisher Act of 1918, and Scotland by a similar Act, have advanced far in the recognition of this public duty.

In the great Act (2301) of 1910, Victoria endeavored to anticipate Britain and to give the lead to all British lands. Section 29 runs: "(1) Continuation classes may be established . . .; (2) The course of study shall include further instruction in such subjects of free instruction and also such other subjects as the Minister shall determine, and to the extent of at least one-third shall consist of instruction in elementary science (including laws of health), and in subjects involved in manual training or in domestic arts." Sections 30 to 34 empower the Governor in Council to make regulations for requiring compulsory attendance in the evening for boys up to the age of seventeen for six hours a week, employers and parents being bound to co-operate.

The legal authority was provided, but public opinion was not ready; and so, apart from some voluntary classes at technical schools, the work of some philanthropic institutions, and a few courses for apprentices referred to in our last chapter, the young people of many skilled and of all unskilled occupations are growing up into citizenship and adult life with the notion that, having left the elementary school, they have finished their education. Meanwhile, there is a great lack of apprenticeship in some trades: it has been affirmed that, in the carpentry trade in the metropolitan area, there are only 10 legally apprenticed boys. There is, too, a specialization in some factories that stifles all ambition and makes the young worker contented with tending a machine or making stock articles. Then there is the blind-alley employment, and the drift to unskilled labor. Let us reaffirm the hope, expressed in connexion with educational experiments among apprentices, that the growth of these and the results of the Apprenticeship Commission will bring about compulsory education for all adolescents.

The Junior Technical School.—This school grew out of an experiment made in 1898, when a manual-training class was opened at the Working Men's College. In 1903, under Mr. P. McCormick, it developed into the lower technical school, and, in 1912, with 211 pupils, was transferred to a special school-building in La Trobe-street, under the name of the West Melbourne Junior Technical School.

By October, 1914, junior technical schools were established at Ballarat, Bendigo, Geelong, Sunshine, Glenferrie, Warrnambool, and Collingwood, and the 211 pupils of 1912 had become 896. By 1920, there were 20 junior schools attached to the 24 senior schools, and the pupils in average attendance had grown to 2,972.

The course of study for the schools is well outlined in the graphic representation (shown on the next page) kindly supplied by the head master of the West Melbourne Junior Technical School:—

For many boys, this course is more interesting than the State-school course, and more interesting than the secondary-school course. There is doing, making, and participating in actual work. The school and occupation meet, and the boy unites them. The Trades' Unions and many employers at first opposed this school. Both are now changing their opinions. The wastage of boys in the first year and the fact that many do not continue their studies in the senior technical school afterwards have been urged in terms of condemnation. Both charges and the facts underlying them are being faced by the teachers and others responsible.

The best reply to such charges is furnished by attendances at such a school as the junior technical school at the Swinburne Technical College. Opened in 1913, it now has an attendance of 314. At the last entrance examination, so keen was the competition that 200 candidates sat to compete for 120 places. For the first five months of this year, the



THE BOARD OF EXAMINERS, 1918.

From left to right (standing).—Messrs. Wm. Henderson, J. T. Saxton, John Cross, P. M. Carew-Smyth, and J. J. Bothroyd. (Seated).—Messrs. A. S. Burgess, J. H. Betheras, John McOwan, and J. C. Rowe.



ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICERS AND INSPECTORIAL STAFF, 1918.

Back row (from the left).—Messrs. R. W. Armitage, F. J. Green, A. E. Thorne, J. A. Leach, L. Thomas, G. E. Parker, J. Cross, J. C. Loughrey, J. C. Lowry, J. W. Gray, J. T. Saxton, J. Akeroyd, P. M. Carew-Smyth, W. H. Dooley, J. Dew. *Middle row*.—Messrs. A. S. Burgess, A. W. Russell, H. S. B. Gill, R. Stephenson, T. Hurley, E. R. Davey, C. R. Long, J. McOwan, Wm. Henderson, W. C. Johns. *Front row*.—Messrs. J. Byatt, J. C. Rowe, W. F. Gates, A. Fussell, F. Tate, C. S. McPherson, M. P. Hansen, J. H. Betheras. (Miss J. Flynn, and Messrs. L. J. Wrigley, T. W. Bothroyd, J. J. Bothroyd, R. H. Greenwood, A. M. Barry, and T. H. Stuart were absent.)

GRAPH SHOWING THREE YEARS COURSE OF STUDY

				Alternate courses	
				Builders	Engineers
1 st Year	2 nd Year	3 rd Year	3 rd Year		
English 5.	English 5	English 4	English 4		
		Economics.1.	Economics.1.		
Civics. 1.	Civics.1.	Algebra 2	Algebra.2		
Algebra.3	Algebra 3.	Trig 2	Trig. 2		
Arith 3	Mens 3	Theo. Geom.1	Theo. Geom.1		
		Quantities.2	Quantities.2.		
Mens. 2.	Theo. Geom.1.				
Science 4.	Science.5	Science 6	Science 6		
Geography.1.	Modelling 2.	Building	Mech		
Modelling.2.	Freehand.2.	Draw	Draw.		
Freehand 2.	Build. Mech.	Dim.	Dim.		
Woodwork 4.	Draw. Draw	Sketch.	Sketch		
	Dim. Sketch				
	Science or	Carpentry	Science		
Sheetmetal 4.	Workshop Wood	6	6.		
			Workshop.		
Solid G.	Smithy 4	Sheetmetal.	Smithy		
Geom D. 5.		4	4.		
Prac. G	Solid. G. 2	Solid. G 2.	Solid.G.2.		
Phy. Drill	Phy. Drill	Phy. Drill	Phy. Drill.		
4	4	4	4		
40 Periods	40 Periods	40 Periods	40 Periods		

Note - Figures denote periods per week.

average attendance was 97 per cent. of the possible. Last year, the wastage in the first year was about 18 per cent., and, this year, partly because the boys are younger, the wastage will be less. Of the boys who left the junior technical school at the close of 1921, 65 per cent. are this year attending the senior technical school either in day or evening classes.

Junior Technical School for Girls.—At the Swinburne Technical School, there was opened, in 1916, the first junior technical school for girls. Under Miss B. L. Blackmore, it has been very successful, and more pupils are offering than can be accommodated. Similar institutions are now at work in Prahran and Ballarat, and more are projected. They are endeavoring, while continuing the education of the girl on generous lines, to give her an intelligent interest in some occupation. In the third year of the course, as may be seen from the curriculum that follows, the aim is purely vocational.

First Year: English, civics, geography, commercial arithmetic, hygiene, art, needlecraft, physical training, choral practice, social hour.

Second Year: Similar subjects to those above.

Third Year: Group 1—Dressmaking, millinery, decoration, needlecraft, ladies' tailoring, costume drawing and designing. Group 2—Ticket writing, lettering and illuminating, drawing for reproduction. Group 3—Primary and Secondary Drawing Teacher's Certificate, Art Teacher's Certificate.

Higher Elementary Schools, Central Schools, Higher Elementary Classes.—At the close of 1910, and especially after the passing of Act 2301, there sprang up a strong agitation for more extended benefits of higher education to country and smaller centers. At once, several higher elementary schools were established; and, since then, the number has grown to 29, with an attendance of 985 boys and 1,062 girls. The scholarship qualification is the ability to pass the Qualifying examination (the sixth grade, normally 12 years). The course is for four years, leading to the Intermediate Certificate, and education is free. The course of study is differentiated so as to provide

for different types of pupils:—general secondary, commercial, domestic, and agricultural.

This type of school, an elementary school with a secondary top, suiting different circumstances, easy to establish and to work, will spread throughout the State. Before a school can be so proclaimed, certain conditions respecting the number of pupils, a grant of land (about 8 acres), and a contribution of money must be satisfied; but the need and desire are so great that there is no difficulty over their fulfilment. The tendency in the past has been to work the pupils together in the general secondary course; but this will be rectified in the future, when teachers become more accustomed to study and to meet local needs.

In smaller country centers, higher elementary classes may be established. These take the first two years of the course for the Intermediate Certificate, and this may be differentiated for four types of pupils. Equivalent to them for the metropolis is the central school. There is only one higher elementary school in the metropolitan area; but there are 11 central schools with an attendance of 644 boys and 748 girls. When there are more high schools of different types in the metropolis, these central schools will act as feeders.

We can see what all this expansion means to a city like Bendigo. At the age of twelve, pupils who have passed the Qualifying examination have the option of attending two preparatory high schools for professional and commercial training, or a girls' technical school, or a boys' junior technical school. Later, they can pass either to the high school, to the senior technical school, or to work.

DOMESTIC ARTS.

Cookery Centers.—In March, 1899, Mrs. A. Fawcett Story was appointed Supervisor of Cookery. Twelve teachers were selected and placed under her, and these she trained with exemplary exactitude in all details. In 1901, she could report that there were 11

centers at work in Ballarat, Bendigo, Geelong, and in eight metropolitan schools.

In 1904, Mrs. Story resigned, and it was not till 1909 that Miss Flora Pell was appointed to succeed her former instructor.

The centers continued to grow. Thus, in 1907-8, there were 16; in 1910-11, 23; in 1912, 31; and, in 1922, 65 centers with about 6,000 girls in attendance. These centers are in connexion with high, higher elementary, and elementary schools throughout the State.

Each group of 13 girls attends a center one day each week for a six months' course. The girls come in the morning, and, by 12.30, they have to cook a three-course dinner. This they serve in a public dining-room, to which teachers, tradesmen, and others come at a charge of 1/- each. There is a talk by the instructor on cost, care, preparation, cooking, etc.; and every girl has given to her a card of instructions carefully set out, and a group is detailed to each item of the menu. At the appointed hour, the meal, smoking hot and tastefully cooked, is served. The afternoon is spent in washing up and in further instruction.

At every center, the girls receive instruction in the preparation of breakfast, luncheon, and tea dishes, of sweets and preserves, and of dishes for invalids. Training is also provided in the choice, purchase, and food-values of all foodstuffs. At the State Schools Exhibition of 1906, the Women's Work Exhibition of 1907, and in many public ways, the girls of these classes have demonstrated how well they can cook, how well they can co-ordinate their labors, and with what taste and skill they can cater for large numbers. An allied movement in the metropolitan area is the sewing centers. There are now seven of these, with an attendance of 3,000 girls from neighboring schools.

Domestic Arts Schools.—The first of these was opened at Bell-street, Fitzroy, in January, 1915, for

girls over twelve years. They spent three days each week in the State school at ordinary subjects, and two days in this special school at cookery, needle-work, dressmaking, millinery, laundry-work, home management, hygiene. An allowance having been made in arithmetic, it was found that the ordinary subjects did not materially suffer from the two days given to the domestic arts; and these girls won as many Merit Certificates as a corresponding number of girls in ordinary schools.

Since 1918, the girls have been taken full time at the Bell-street School; and, in the teaching, their arithmetic and some of the work in other subjects, for example, English, is correlated with the work in cookery, etc. There are now five of these special schools in the State: three in Melbourne, and one in Ballarat and Bendigo, respectively; and evening courses are held at each of them. Modified courses are followed in Castlemaine and Maryborough. If one may predict, this type of school should spread rapidly.

Domestic Arts Classes in Technical Schools.—For many years, there have been, at the Working Men's College, classes in dressmaking and designing, and in millinery and design. In 1911, the first laundry class was opened at the Swinburne Technical College, and 100 girls each week attended. In the same year, departments were opened there in cookery, dressmaking, and millinery—some for day classes, and some both for day and evening. In the cookery department, there is a special class for invalid cookery and a special domestic-economy course for girls who have left school. It embraces cookery, laundry, housewifery, needlework, home nursing, simple home hygiene, care of children, and marketing notes.

There are classes in all the leading technical schools for millinery and dressmaking, but not for cookery.

Domestic Arts Hostel.—This is really a branch of the Teachers' College, but is worked under the Super-

intendent of the College of Domestic Economy. It was opened in 1911 to train teachers for cookery centers, domestic arts centers, and for technical schools. Thirty students were admitted, and about the same number have been admitted every alternate year since. They are paid £50 each per annum; and, co-operatively with this money, they run the hostel, doing all the domestic work themselves.

They study English, physics, and chemistry at the Teachers' College; bacteriology, anatomy, and physiology at the University; and cookery, laundry, needle-work, and hygiene at the College of Domestic Economy. The third year of the course is spent as student-teachers in a cookery school or center. If they are successful at the end of their course, they receive the Trained Teacher's Certificate.

College of Domestic Economy.—It was not till October, 1906, that a renovated Government building in Lonsdale-street and £1,000 were put at the disposal of the Department for this institution. Miss Sandes, of the Women's Technical College, Sydney, was appointed superintendent, and a beginning was made with 19 girls in cookery and domestic economy. On March 16th, 1907, the institution was formally opened by Lady Talbot, the Hon. Thomas Bent (who was Premier at the time) being present.

There was a dining-room in connexion with the cookery center, and the students could thus test the results of their efforts. Classes in dressmaking, white-work, millinery, and laundry-work were formed. A two years' course for a Diploma of Domestic Arts was instituted; and, in later years, hygiene, physiology, chemistry, and bacteriology have been added to it. Since 1911, 150 of the domestic arts teachers in State schools have gone through the college. By 1921, nearly 4,000 students had passed through it; and, in that year, from 350 to 400 students were enrolled.

For three years in succession, summer schools were held at Werribee, Bacchus Marsh, and Gisborne, and, for some years, in co-operation with another body,

public lectures on problems of hygiene and housewifery were given. In later years, the institution has catered for women workers at home and for women workers who earn their living by some branch of domestic art. The college would do more in both directions, but its space is too limited. More particularly, those who guide it wish it to be a true college—a place of research, a place for training leaders, a place where the domestic arts are made a true science and a true art.

CHAPTER XXIX.

RELATION TO THE UNIVERSITY AND TO REGISTERED SCHOOLS. THE WORKERS' EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

The University.—The University is an autonomous institution, and over no part of its affairs has the Education Department any control; but all sums paid to the University appear as charges against the education vote. As the number of its students is constantly increasing, and the number of its “schools” or functions is likewise increasing, these sums must grow larger and larger.* The Education Department is deeply interested in the welfare of the University because of the part the University plays in education, and because of the increasing number of students entering it from the high schools and technical schools. More particularly, the Department is linked with the University in the training of secondary teachers.

In 1902, the course for the Diploma of Education was instituted; and, by an arrangement between the University and the Department, the Principal of the Teachers’ College became the Lecturer in Education for the University. The Department stipulated that

*Between 1900 and 1921, the following new “schools” were added to the University: education, mining, veterinary surgery, agriculture, dentistry. Architecture is being added, and commerce and domestic economy are being discussed in terms of buildings, staff, and money. In the same time the students increased from 531 to 2,654. In 1904, the Government grant was increased by Sir Thomas Bent from £9,000 to £20,000, and this in recent years instead of paying half the expenditure, as formerly, has been paying only one-third.

it would bear all expenses in developing the course. After the passing of the *Registration Act* in 1905, the number of students for the Diploma of Education intending to enter registered schools as teachers steadily increased. In 1905, and again in 1908, the number of Departmental students studying for the Diploma increased. In 1909, there was established the first secondary practising school (the University High School) and the Principal (Mr. L. J. Wrigley) Miss M. A. Williams, and Miss S. Mitchell were appointed as special lecturers and supervisors of method for the University education course. Other supervisors of method have been appointed since, and a new and enlarged practising school is being planned. In 1918, the lecturer became the first professor of education in the University.

Scholarships.—It has been already stated (see Pt. II.) that the private schools in the years of retrenchment awarded scholarships on the results of an examination conducted by the Education Department. In 1896, they provided 127; in 1897, 126; in 1898, 133; and, since 1900, though the Department has resumed and increased its scholarships, they still continue to attract in this way some of the brighter boys and girls of the State schools.

The following table will show that the Department's scheme of scholarships is a liberal one. In any year, there may be:—

680 scholarship-holders attending junior technical or secondary schools.

300 free places in the University High School.

350 to 480 free places in the high schools.

118 to 295 scholarship-holders attending senior technical schools.

230 studentship-holders attending the Teachers' College and allied institutions.

160 to 240 Senior scholarship-holders attending the University.

80 to 120 scholarship-holders attending the University. (Nominated courses.)

60 Diploma Twenty—students attending the University.

The Junior scholarships of all kinds are won by special examination, so are the Senior scholarships to the University. The Diploma Twenty, the Nominated courses at the University, and the Senior Technical scholarships are awarded by special committees who consider records, and, if necessary, interview the candidates. It is hoped that this method may be extended to the Senior scholarships, and so free the "A" schools of the Schools Board from the incubus of an external examination. This will be a great forward step in secondary education. It may be added that the Council of Public Education has recommended a similar scheme for awarding Junior scholarships.

Travelling scholarships for inspectors, lecturers in the Teachers' College, and leading teachers are also in the Victorian scheme; but none of these has as yet been awarded.

The Schools Board.—In 1912, through a resolution of the Council of Public Education, and through subsequent discussion, there was brought into being the Schools Board* to control all the Public examinations of the University, and to arrange for a system of inspection in lieu of one of external examinations. Eight members represent the University, eight the Education Department, eight the registered schools, and two represent other interests. Its first work was to define the scope of secondary education, and to set out courses of study in each of the subjects embraced by it. It was suggested that secondary education should begin at 12 years, and that the successful termination of the course of study for four years, five years, and six years should be marked by the granting of the Intermediate Certificate, the Leav-

*The Schools Board is really a University body, and, consequently, its work does not fall within the scope of this book, strictly speaking; but, as it is impossible to understand secondary education in Victoria without understanding it, and as its inspectors are also those who organize and direct all Government secondary schools, a short treatment of it cannot be avoided.

ing Pass Certificate, and the Leaving Honors Certificate, respectively.

At first, the certificates were gained solely by external examination, but the courses of study for each year's work advanced education by their explicit directions and standards. Much discussion took place over the appointment of inspectors; and, in the end, a majority carried a resolution, afterwards adopted by the Council and Senate of the University, that three secondary inspectors be appointed by the Education Department on the nomination of the Schools Board, and that these be lent to the Schools Board to do their work each year, and that, while so doing, they be regarded as officers of the Board. On representation being made to the Government, the proposal was agreed to, and the inspectors were appointed in 1914.

Mr. M. P. Hansen, M.A., LL.B., who had been a brilliant student of the Teachers' College, who afterwards had been a senior master at Wesley College, and who, from 1st January, 1909, had acted ably and judiciously as the inspector of registered schools under the Registration Board, was appointed Chief Secondary Inspector. Mr. L. J. Wrigley, M.A., a Victorian who had studied education at the London Univeristy, and who had, after his return, become the first principal of the University High School; and Miss Julia Flynn, M.A., who had passed through the Teachers' College with much credit in the years 1900-1, and who had afterwards taught in the Melbourne High School, were appointed inspectors. It is difficult to say all that secondary education in this State owes to the ability, zeal, and organizing power of these inspectors.

As several registered schools signified their intention of remaining outside the inspection scheme for the present, the Schools Board denominated those schools "A" which were approved after inspection, and all other schools "B." To the "A" schools, the right was given of passing their candidates for the

Intermediate Certificate; and, since then, this has been extended to the Leaving Pass. Were it not for the competitive examination for Government Senior scholarships and for entrance exhibitions to the University, the right would be extended to the Leaving Honors Certificate; and the advocates of the inspection system are hopeful that a scheme may yet be devised to achieve this.

At present, a number of the high schools and two of the registered schools are working under the "A" system; and, as other high schools become efficient, they will be allowed to enter it. The hope is that, when the schools are freed from the incubus and fetters of the external examinations, they will devise courses of study, give the teachers more freedom in treatment and experiment in method and with different types of children.

For the "B" schools, the Schools Board is constantly perfecting the courses set and the machinery of the examinations. Practising teachers act as examiners; committees representing teachers, examiners, and Schools Board discuss the courses of study and the results of examinations; and inspectors inspect laboratories of schools in physics and chemistry. This system of inspecting laboratories will be extended.

The Registered Schools.—In some of his earlier annual reports, and in his New Zealand report, the Director complained of the number of inefficient private schools which were not inspected and not even supervised. It may be added that, in these years, all expert educational opinion desired the registration of schools and teachers. In 1905, and in December, 1910, Acts were passed which ensured supervision within limits of all schools within the State.

Act 2005 (passed 1905) gives the first hint of the supervision of non-Departmental schools. "Schools other than State may obtain a general certificate of exemption of visits from truant officers and respecting attendance of pupils upon application if efficient

and regular instruction is given." Act 2301 (Dec., 1910) goes much farther: "Registered schools must keep attendance registers . . . available for inspection by the Minister at any time." "Power is given to the Minister to authorize inspection of schools other than State schools to ascertain whether efficient and regular instruction is being given." Combine these clauses with clauses in other Acts bearing on the matter, and it will be seen that all the children of the State under thirteen years and all under fourteen who have not gained the Merit Certificate or its equivalent are under State supervision and inspection. Act 2013, passed in December, 1905, goes farther still.

This Act—*The Registration of Schools and Teachers Act*—places Victoria in a unique position among British lands, as the only State which makes compulsory the registering of schools and teachers. So far as Victoria is concerned, it put an end to the scandalous state of things which, in 1858, had been summed up by the Assistant Commissioner of London in these words: "None are too old, too ignorant, too feeble, too sickly, to regard themselves as unfit for school keeping." Henceforth, teaching was to be a profession. The public would be instructed by regulations under the Act as to the scope of different grades of schools; and buildings, furniture, and equipment were to be in keeping with the work of the school.

The Registration Board drafted regulations under the Act, and established the machinery to carry them into effect. Mr. M. H. Bottoms of the Education Department was appointed first registrar, and Mr. M. P. Hansen, the first inspector; and the smooth working of the Act owes much to the courtesy, tact, firmness, and judicial fairness of these two officials. Three grades of schools were defined: Sub-primary, primary, and secondary; and regulations for the training and registering of the teachers of each were drafted. At first, it was thought that all junior teachers would disappear; but, as they were a part of

the State system, this was impracticable; and so they had to be recognized in the system of training. All intending secondary teachers were required to obtain the Diploma of Education at the University.

The effects of the working of this Act can be seen in many ways. Within 13 years, the 757 private schools of 1905 had decreased to 499, the teachers from 2,397 to 2,002; but the net enrolment of pupils had increased from 48,732 to 58,366. In this direction, the working of the Act by increasing the efficiency of the best schools has increased the desire for secondary education, and this was increased still further after the opening of the State high schools. In 1911-12, the net enrolment at registered schools was, as in 1905-6, 48,000; but, in 1917-18, it was 58,000.

The teacher's lot has greatly improved. The salaries in some of the best boys' schools have increased 50 per cent. In girls' schools, the increase varies from 100 to 200 per cent. Not all of this increase is due to the *Registration Act*, but much is. Each year, in the Diploma of Education class at the University, 20 to 30 students are studying to become teachers in registered schools, and these are amongst the ablest of the Arts and Science students. The teachers in registered schools, especially the assistant teachers, are beginning to have a corporate spirit. Buildings and equipment have greatly improved. As the head of one of the large girls' schools expressed it in a letter: "Registration has improved the larger schools in every way."

The Council of Education.—The Commission on Technical Education was eager to prevent the education stream from becoming stagnant. There should be a presiding body which would constantly criticise every movement and lack of movement, which would co-ordinate all government educational institutions, which would be an advisory body to the Minister, and would keep the Victorian system abreast of those in all progressive lands. Several European countries

had such a body; and England in the Act of 1900 had provided for a Consultative Council.

By Act 2301, a council representing all educational interests was appointed. The powers possessed by the Registration Board were transferred to it, and it was to arrange the conditions under which teachers of registered schools might be transferred to government schools. Furthermore, it was to report on matters referred to it or on educational reforms. Since then the committees of the council have handed in several valuable reports, among them being reports on "Moving Pictures as an Educational Aid," "Commercial Education," "Teaching by Correspondence," "Education of Women," "Teaching of Modern Languages," and "Scholarships." The council acts on behalf of any educational cause. At a recent meeting, it determined to seek exemption from the rating of registered school playgrounds, and to make representations to the Defence Department to have cadets medically examined at their schools instead of in their home areas. Yet, in the opinion of some of those who know it best, it has (apart from its registration duties) an inherent weakness or defect. It has no power to enforce its findings—many of its best reports have been pigeonholed.

Workers' Educational Association.—Since 1913, when Mr. Mansbridge visited Australia, an annual grant has been given to this association. It seeks to bring the University to the worker, and, by means of lectures followed by discussion, to induce the workers to undertake systematic study. The first Government grant was £300; in 1917, it had become £1,500; and, in 1921, it had reached £3,750. On the Council of the Workers' Educational Association, there are representatives of the workers' unions, of the University, and of the Department, and a body composed of equal numbers from this council and from the University directs the tutorial classes and extension work generally.

In 1913, there were two tutorial classes; in 1921, there were 21. Single lectures to arouse interest are given in suburban and country centers; and, if a class for study can be formed, a lecturer is provided. The favorite subjects for study are: Economics, modern history, sociology, English literature, psychology, and social science.

CHAPTER XXX.

THE DEPARTMENT'S AID TO SPECIAL INSTITUTIONS. MEDICAL INSPECTION. THE SUB-NORMAL. PHYSICAL TRAINING.

The widening scope of the Department's activities, and the growing conception of education, can be seen from the connexion between the Department and the philanthropic institutions for the young, and from the added interest attached to the education of the sub-normal, and from the increased attention paid to all matters pertaining to the health and the physical training of boys and girls.

Deaf and Dumb Institution.—This institution has a long history since its foundation in 1860 by Mr. F. J. Rose till the present time, when, under Mr. Adcock, as secretary, its inmates number 114. The Government grant is £760 per annum.

The Education Department, in co-operation with the Board of Management, pays the salaries of all the teachers and supervises the school. In addition, since 1918, it has permitted the boys to attend the Prahran Technical School for bootmaking and carpentry, and the girls for dressmaking and millinery. These girls also receive instruction in cookery and household management at the State-school center. As the majority of the pupils are taught all ordinary school subjects by oral methods in their own school, they follow the instruction by lip-reading, and this intercourse with normal people is very beneficial to their development.

The inmates enter at seven years of age and remain till they are 16 or, in some cases, 18. Great attention is paid to visual education (for example, by

means of lantern slides), and to sport. When they leave, they have no difficulty in securing situations in factories, and they can earn the wages paid to normal persons.

Royal Victorian Institute for the Blind.—This institution was established in 1867. The number of persons now boarding at or attending it is 156. Its object throughout has been to give an ordinary education to blind children, and, subsequently, to train them in some trade or profession by means of which they may support themselves. Besides this, it trains blind adults; and, since the war, it has trained many blind soldiers. The Government grant each year since 1912 has been £1,700. About £700 of the amount is devoted to educational work, and the Education Department pays, in addition, the salary of one of the three teachers employed.

The pupils enter at the age of five or six, and, at 15 or 16, are passed on to the industrial department. The visitor is always impressed by the ability of the pupils in school subjects, by their retentive memories in such subjects as history, by their skill in manual work of different kinds, and by their excellent singing. Three boys of the institution, chiefly owing to the efforts of their blind teacher, Miss Tilly Aston, were successful in a recent scholarship examination, and are now attending the Gardiner Central School, communicating with their teachers by means of a typewriter, when written work is required.

A large number of the adults receive a training in piano-tuning, and in making baskets and mats; and the institution aids blind soldiers by providing material as cost price, and by securing orders that they may work at their own homes. When the pupils of the institution pass to the industrial department, they usually become non-residents, for they can easily support themselves.

Free Kindergarten Union.—The free kindergartens in Melbourne began about 1901 with the work of Miss

Wilson in Bouverie-street, Carlton, and Miss Westmoreland, of Kew. In 1908, the Principal of the Teachers' College (Dr. John Smyth) called those responsible for the free kindergartens together, and there was formed the Free Kindergarten Union of Victoria.

From 1909 till 1917, the students under the union received their lectures at the Teachers' College, and half their fees were paid into the union's funds. Since 1917, the union has undertaken all the training of its students, and has recently opened a hostel for them at Kew. In June, 1910, a grant of £1,000 to the union was authorized by the Cabinet, mainly on the condition that it be used for the salaries of those teaching in the kindergartens. This grant has been continued year by year since.

At present, there are 26 kindergartens under the union, with 26 directors, 25 paid assistants, and 470 voluntary helpers, and 1,489 children are enrolled. The vast amount of unselfish work given to the union by the many workers, from the president to the voluntary helpers, is deserving of much praise. Perhaps, in days to come, a closer co-operation between the work of these kindergartens and the work in the State infant-rooms will be possible.

Other Institutions.—The Department maintains a school for epileptic children at the Talbot Home, and provides teachers for schools in connexion with philanthropic institutions, such as Miss Sutherland's Home and the Burwood Boys' Home. The school in each case is treated as a Departmental school, and the teacher has nothing to do with religious instruction, or with the philanthropic work of the institution. These are fine instances of co-operation between a State department and church and other philanthropic efforts for the young.

The Sub-Normal.—In 1911, a committee was appointed by the Education Department to inquire

into the education of sub-normal children. At that time, "intelligence tests," which are helpful means in determining the sub-normal, were not well understood in Victoria or in any part of Australia; but it was believed that, under intelligent care, a better education could be given to these unfortunate children, and that a better understanding could be gained of the limits of normal intelligence and the characteristics of the sub-normal. As the results of the deliberations of this committee, Mr. S. D. Porteus was appointed head-master in February, 1913; and the Bell-street (Fitzroy) School for sub-normal children was opened under him in July of that year. Sixty children were enrolled at the outset; and, in November, 1914, after a van had been chartered to bring some 20 children from South Melbourne and Port Melbourne, the roll number was 70. The van was found to be costly, and the Montague adjunct was opened in 1915, with a roll of 42. At present, there are 50 children attending at Bell-street and 40 at Montague.

Instruction is given by trained teachers through kindergarten and Montessori methods in the school subjects of reading, writing, spelling, number work, drawing, and history stories. Progress is comparatively slow; there is much repetition, and individuals have to be specially considered and taught. Special stress is laid on manual training in many forms, such as woodwork, toy-making, raffia-work, modelling, sewing, knitting, string-work, and bootmaking. Great attention is paid to physical training, and to the control of the impulses and emotions. The aim throughout is to make each pupil a more efficient social unit.

The Department was singularly fortunate in the selection of Mr. S. D. Porteus. From the beginning, he displayed a unique faculty for observation and research in the use of intelligence tests; and, believing that the Binet tests were defective as tests for motor intelligence, he devised a set of tests based purely on motor intelligence, which are now widely

used. At the end of 1918, when his writings had become well-known through American journals, he was invited to succeed Director Henry H. Goddard in the Vineland Training School for feeble-minded girls and boys, New Jersey; and, in 1921, he was appointed Professor of Experimental Psychology at Honolulu. He is, at present, investigating the methods of determining different levels of intelligence.

During these years, much progress was made throughout Australia in understanding some of the problems relating to the care and training of sub-normal children. Professor Morris Millar, of Hobart, after a visit to the other Australian States and to the United States, embodied his views in a Bill which, passed by the Tasmanian legislature in 1920, is now the high-water mark of legislation in this subject in Australia.

Professor R. J. Berry, of the Melbourne University, has endeavored to secure the co-operation of all the State Governments in the establishment of a clinic for the sub-normal and a training school for teachers; but funds for this project have not been provided yet. There is a likelihood, however, that a clinic will be established in connexion with the Teachers' College. It will have two objects: (1) To give advice to parents; (2) to train students so that they may be able to distinguish the sub-normal and to educate them. Under this clinic, a comprehensive survey of the intelligence levels of our school-pupils will be undertaken; and the teaching of the ungraded classes in the State schools, the work in the special schools, and the clinic will be all linked together. Ultimately, all must be linked to special farms and homes for the mentally defective, young and old. For, if society will save these unfortunates from themselves and from men and women of evil passions, and so will protect itself against vile diseases and crimes, it must continue to care for those who are unable to care for themselves.

Medical Inspection.—The inclusion of the inspection of children by medical officers under the Department is an extension of State education in recent years due in part to the democratic movement in the community, but mainly to the growing conception in the public mind of the scope and meaning of education. Beginning in sporadic efforts by municipalities and doctors in several European countries in the seventies of the nineteenth century, it became established in law and practice, so that, by 1898, many progressive countries, including Japan, had arranged for school medical inspection. In 1904, the first international congress on school hygiene was held at Nuremberg; and, in the same year, London made provision for a somewhat comprehensive medical inspection of its children, 32 nurses being added to the medical staff. In 1907, the second international congress on school hygiene was held in London; and, before the end of that year, a national scheme of medical inspection was embodied in an Education Act by the House of Commons.

In 1909, Victoria followed the example of Tasmania, and appointed as medical officers Dr. Harvey Sutton, Dr. Mary Booth, and Dr. Jane S. Greig. These officers found themselves occupying new territory, with few plans enabling them to ascertain objectives and to determine ways and means. Some 200,000 children were in State institutions; and, in a year, each officer could examine only 4,000 or 6,000 according to the method used. No anthropometric survey of Australian children had been made, and the authorities were not agreed on the extent to which the medical examination of each child should be carried. The Victorian medical officers resolved from the outset that they would examine each child carefully as to vision, hearing, the condition of his nose, throat, and teeth, his general health and development, and his home environment; that exact chest and head measurements should be taken; and that a report with directions should be sent to the parents; also, that the

lighting and cleanliness of school-buildings should be inquired into and reported on. Later, it was laid down as a minimum that every child should be examined three times in the course of his school life, and that every pupil in a high school should be examined every two years. It was also arranged that the doctor who examines the children of the kindergartens should follow the same procedure and report to parents in the same way.

Later still, the medical officers added to their duties an examination of the pupils in the institutions for the blind and for the deaf and dumb, of sub-normal children, of epileptic children, of children suffering from mal-nutrition, and of pupils addicted to truancy. They had an open-air school instituted at Blackburn for children suffering from mal-nutrition or anæmia. They gave regular instruction in hygiene to the students at the Teachers' College and to the students of the Diploma course, and secured the teaching of the subject to all children in State schools.

In many of their annual reports, besides outlining the health survey which they have made and their recommendations, they give the results of some special investigation. Among these have been: "The Feeble-minded," "Retardation in School and its Causation by Physical Defects," "Growth of the Australian Child," "The Child as a Test of Social Conditions," "Child Labor in a Dairying District," "The Development of the Child," "Truants and Special Cases."

In 1920, through the efforts of the Director and in recognition of the aid rendered by the State schools of Victoria during the war, the Defence Department handed over to the Education Department its well-equipped dental clinic in the Domain. Two dentists and three dental assistants were appointed, and, every month, these treat 650 children confined to the ages from six to eight. (It is impossible for them to treat more.) There are now four medical officers, and

for the metropolitan area, a nurse, who "follows up" the medical examination in schools and visits every year some 3,500 homes. Every school in the metropolis is now thoroughly cleaned every two years by men permanently employed by the Department.

Victoria has a school population of 286,000 (State and registered schools—net enrolment). To treat all children between six and eight (some 64,000), 21 dentists would be required; to inspect every pupil three times in his school life, 15 medical officers would be needed; and 6 "follow-up" nurses should be at work in the capital and large towns. New South Wales has now a staff of 14 medical officers, 7 dentists, 6 half-time dentists, 6 dental assistants, and 7 school nurses; and, besides, has at work one metropolitan dental clinic, 6 travelling dental clinics, one travelling ophthalmic clinic, and one travelling hospital. These latter visiting country towns and districts "far removed from what may be called 'the haunts of civilization'" are unique in the history of school medical services throughout the world.

Swimming.—As an instance of the growth of positive teaching and regular training in physical exercises, the history of swimming in the schools is instructive.

In 1898, a committee of teachers was formed to encourage swimming, and 27 boys' clubs (with a membership of 1,705) and 26 girls' clubs (with a membership of 1,000) joined the association. From the beginning, the large swimming baths in the metropolitan centers were made available at a small cost. The Tramways Board and the Railway Commissioners have allowed generous concessions to pupils travelling to and from the baths.

Between 1899 and 1910, new clubs were formed, the committee of management was enlarged, and competitions were held at South Melbourne and Geelong. The growth of the movement led to the appointment in January, 1910, of Miss May Cox and in February, 1911, of Mr. Frank Beaurepaire to

organize the teaching of swimming and methods of life-saving, and led also to the institution, in 1911, of the Junior Certificate and the Senior Certificate for pupils, and a Certificate of Competency in Swimming and Life-saving for teachers. Since 1915, when Mr. Beaurepaire left to take part in Y.M.C.A. work at the front, Miss Cox has been sole organizer.

For many years, summer schools for teachers at Christmas-time have been held at seaside resorts. Lectures in hygiene by the medical officers, and special instruction in the teaching and practice of swimming, diving, and life-saving, are given. Two hundred and eighty-one teachers have thus gained the certificate, and one hundred and fifty others have almost qualified. In several metropolitan centers, the bath-keepers render valuable assistance to the teachers; and, in different country districts, residents have regularly assisted the teachers in conducting classes. In the records of the Royal Humane Society, there are several instances of the rescue of drowning persons by pupils of State schools. This society presents each year to each school a medallion for the boy and one for the girl who shows the greatest proficiency in the rescue and resuscitation of drowning persons. Since 1910, 662 medallions have been issued, and 53,752 pupils have gained certificates.

Cadet System.—Till the inception of the Defence Department's scheme of cadet training in 1911, many schools had detachments of cadets, which were inspected annually. In June, 1910, there were 173 detachments with 230 teachers as officers, and 11 district inspectors as commanding officers of battalions. Since 1911, the training of the junior cadets has been left with teachers, and schools of instruction to enable them to qualify as instructors have been regularly held. Special schools for inspectors have also been held.

Victorian State Schools Amateur Athletic Association.—To organize school competitions in games and athletics, to maintain a healthy interest in sport,

and to assist the Department in its work of developing the body, this association was formed in 1905. Since 1918, the metropolitan area has been divided into 19 districts for competitions in cricket, football, basket ball, swimming, and rounders. Each districts is under a secretary who arranges home-and-home-matches; and, when the premiership of each district is determined, the premier teams play off till the premier team of the year is known. There have been interesting contests in football between teams representing Victorian and New South Wales schools. Several branches of the association have been formed in country and non-metropolitan districts. Each year in November, the district competitions culminate in the annual sports' gathering, when over 2,000 competitors enter for the events. The Department has several times recognized what this association is doing, and, in its report of 1918-19, in referring to it said: "The Department is indebted to the association. It is difficult to estimate the value of its work."

CHAPTER XXXI.

THE DEPARTMENT'S PUBLICATIONS. TEACHING BY CORRESPONDENCE. TEACHERS AND TEACHERS' UNIONS.

The School Paper.—Commenced in February, 1896, this paper, intended for the use of Class III., was entrusted to the Board of Examiners, with whom was associated Mr. C. R. Long. Mr. Long had made a careful study of the *Children's Hour* of South Australia, and the Inspector-General soon made him solely responsible for the publication. Among the developments that have taken place since have been the publication of a separate paper for Class IV. and of a more difficult one for Classes V. and VI., the issuing of an edition for Tasmania, and the sending of thousands of papers by arrangement to the Department of Western Australia. *The School Paper* is used by many private schools, and is prescribed for all grades from the third to the eighth in the State schools. The number printed each month is over 200,000. For several years, it was the only reading-book of the State schools, but, since 1913, although it has held the first place in the teaching of reading, supplementary readers have been used.

From the beginning, three aims have been steadfastly held in view by the editor: (1) To give the children acquaintance with the great prose and poetic works of our literature; (2) to make them acquainted with the classic stories of the ages; and (3) to develop in them an understanding love of Victoria, of Australia, of the British Empire, and through these of humanity. Moreover, there has been fostered the love for plant and flower, for bird and winged thing, for the work of the hand and the work of the

mind, for kindly deed and thoughtful act, and for the heroic part whether played in "the trivial round, the common task," or in the greater occasions of life. In choosing these subjects, style has not been forgotten, and no effort has been spared to give to the narrative a form suitable and attractive to the young mind.

Several special numbers are issued each year. The first of these was the "Arbor-day Number," and, since 1904, it has reminded young and old of the part played in the economy of life by the tree. The first "Empire-day Number" in 1905 created wide interest, and letters received from many parts of the Empire spoke in high terms of its excellence. The "Bird-day Number" first appeared in July, 1910; and, since then, the "Anzac-day Number" and the "Shakespeare Number" have been added. Besides these yearly recurring numbers, other special papers have been issued from time to time. Thus there were in 1905 a "Nelson Centenary Number" and a "Courtesy Number"; in 1908, "Our Native Land Number"; in 1909, a number on "Victoria and its Resources," and, in 1914, a "Hygiene Number" and a "Discovery-day Number." One should not forget the special articles in prose and verse on Christmas which characterize the December number, or the special articles during the war which fostered true patriotism in the hearts of the young.

The School Paper is distinctive in the literary quality of its articles, in the wide range of its sympathies, and in its spiritual tone. The fairy tales of all lands and ages are in its pages for the little ones; gems of poetry culled from books and magazines sing themselves by its means into the hearts of the boys and girls; Shakespeare, Milton, Burns, Tennyson, and the other great writers of our tongue become to its young readers household names through repeated acquaintance and growing intimacy; and the noblest and the best in heart and character are constantly evoked and nurtured by its outlook on life and the

spirit which informs its pages, which outlook and spirit may be described in the words of Coleridge, "He prayeth best who loveth best all things both great and small."

All this is the work of the editor, Mr. C. R. Long, and to him for this work and all its consequences for good, not only the young but all homes, all churches, and the State itself owe a debt of gratitude.

The *Education Gazette and Teachers' Aid*—Since the inception of the *Gazette* in July, 1900, the only editor has been Mr. Long, who, since 1911, has been assisted by Mr. G. M. Wallace. It is the indispensable notice-board and clearing-station of the Education Department, calling the attention of teachers to vacancies, developments, rules, and regulations, important happenings, and new requirements, and clearing up ambiguities and misunderstandings. By it, the teachers are instructed in new subjects and new methods, are made acquainted with educational doings in other lands, and are told of helpful books and magazines. Copies are sent free, each month, to every school in the State. One of the special features of the *Gazette* is the series of special articles written by experts of the Department. Several of these, somewhat enlarged, have been published separately as Circulars of Information. The titles of some of them are "Arithmetic," "Geography," "Phonics," "Phonetic Spelling," "Composition," "Nature-study," "Bird Life," "Trees and Gardens," "Agriculture," "Science," "Drawing," "Needlework," "The Organization of the Larger Elementary Schools," and "School Committees." Some of these circulars, such as that on agriculture, were written both for teachers and for parents, and, with their pictures and accounts of what was being done throughout the State, must have been a revelation of scope and progress to all readers.

The *Gazette* is a Departmental organ, and, consequently, cannot express the thoughts, questionings, and opposition of any of the teachers. It is official.

To exhibit the life which vitalizes the organization of the Department, to represent the initiative and originality of the teachers, and to discuss pro and con the problems which are constantly arising, another kind of publication is necessary, which, as matters stand at present, cannot be published by the Department. The *Program*, issued by the teachers, now takes the place formerly held by *The Australasian Schoolmaster*.

Correspondence Work.—A fine instance of the helpfulness of the Department to those removed from the metropolitan centers of learning is given by its correspondence work.

The first kind of this work had to do with the instruction of the junior teachers living beyond the metropolitan area. A staff of teachers was gathered at the Melbourne Continuation School, and the work was organized for this in 1909. In the first year, 321 students were enrolled; this number rose to 806 in 1912; and it now stands at 645. A staff of teachers sends out, at regular intervals, the timetables, instructions, and sets of questions, and returns exercises and answers, giving helpful advice. All subjects of the Public and junior-teacher examinations are provided for. Owing to the larger number of intending junior teachers who remain at high schools till they pass the Leaving examination, the numbers in these classes may be expected to decrease.

As may be seen from the chapter dealing with the infant-room, a correspondence class for the Infant Teacher's Certificate has been conducted since 1911 at the Teachers' College. The staff of the college, with a secretary who types and records and is responsible for the regularity of the work, has helped in this way from 120 to 150 teachers each year to gain the coveted certificate. The refresher school in September, which brings all these students together both for instruction and for social intercourse, is a feature of this class.

In 1914, there started, by "a happy accident," a kind of school which has since spread to the other States and to New Zealand. In that year, Mr. McRae, Vice-Principal of the Teachers' College, arranged with four of the college students to post exercises in school subjects to three boys belonging to a family in Beech Forest living eight miles from a school, and to correct their answers. In 1915, such was the success that more outback families were enrolled; and, in 1916, so many came forward that it was no longer possible for students to do the work. It was, therefore, transferred to the Faraday-st. Practising School, and Miss May Porter was appointed to undertake it. Since then, it has so grown that 200 pupils are enrolled, and four assistants and one junior teacher are engaged under Miss Porter. The pupils are scattered round all the fringes of the State—beyond Orbost and Buchan, beyond Delegate, on the Upper Murray, and in other remote spots. A year's work in fortnightly sets, with a time-table and explanatory notes, is sent out to each pupil. As soon as a set is finished, it is sent in; and, with the corrections, a letter from the teacher goes to the pupil. There is, in this way, no waiting; each pupil goes at his own rate. The successes attending the class are remarkable: several Merit Certificates have been gained, and one of the winners of these is now qualifying for a nurse; one boy has entered the Essendon High School; and one boy, in 1919, gained an entrance scholarship to the University High School.

The latest class in correspondence was opened in February, 1922. Pupils in rural schools at a distance from any higher school, who have gained the Merit Certificate and who are desirous to proceed to higher examinations, may be enrolled at a correspondence class at the Melbourne High School. They attend their own rural school, their attendances are marked, and they proceed under some supervision from the teacher to do the exercises set. Every week, their

work is sent to the Melbourne High School; and, every week, it is returned corrected. Two hundred and twenty-five pupils, each doing seven subjects, are enrolled this year under a staff of teachers, the largest number from any one school being nine. It is believed that the coming years will see much larger numbers enrolled.

The Department and Teachers: Teachers' Unions.—The unions which had been formed previous to 1900 continued to exist and to work for teachers' interests throughout the early years of the century. If it must be admitted that, in none of these years were the annual congresses so large, so enthusiastically attended, or their proceedings characterized by the same width of outlook as some of the congresses of the nineties; yet it may also be maintained that, in their conferences and deputations to the Director and to the Minister, the teachers not only pressed just claims for the redress of grievances, but also contended for many measures of educational reform. Thus, they asked for the *Registration Act*; and they have repeatedly asked for better staffing, better training for junior teachers, the creation of a greater number of higher positions, reforms in the curriculum, a scheme of superannuation, and a reform in the mode of valuing a teacher's worth.*

Naturally, for years much attention was given to the question of salaries; and, after many delays by Parliament in restoring the old salaries, a more vigorous policy in 1916 and 1917 was adopted by the Teachers' Union. Now the union embraces the Head Teachers' Association, the Male Assistants' Associa-

*Particular mention should be made of Mr. Geo. H. Carter, who for many years was organizing secretary of the Union, and who was secretary for the great exhibition in 1906. He was a most indefatigable worker. Mention should also be made of Mr. Jno. Braithwaite, the president in recent years, whose tact, experience, and moderation aided greatly in the reorganization of the union, and carried the agitation for increased salaries to a successful issue.



COUNTRY SCHOOL.



ELEMENTARY AND HIGHER ELEMENTARY SCHOOL.



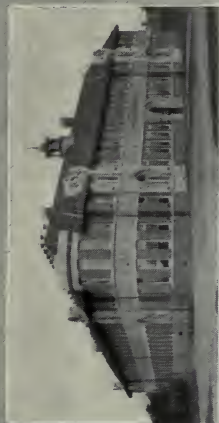
INFANTS' SCHOOL.



CITY SCHOOL.



BALLARAT HIGH SCHOOL



SOUTH MELBOURNE TECHNICAL SCHOOL



TEACHERS' COLLEGE



WILSON HALL, UNIVERSITY OF MELBOURNE.

tion, the Women Teachers' Association, the Junior Teachers' Associations, and country associations. It has 4,000 members, its own professional staff, its own central rooms, and its own organ, *The Program*.

At present, the High School Teachers' Association, the Technical School Teachers' Association, and the Teachers' Union are independent members of the Public Service Union. The purpose of this large union is to work for common objects: superannuation, independent tribunals, furlough, etc. The three branches of the teaching service are joined in a loose federation consisting of five members from each. Many believe that this loose federation will become a close union, and that it will include, at least for certain purposes, all bodies of professional workers under the Department.

The Teachers' Union, by its strength and its temperate policy, did much to secure the *Salaries Act* of 1920. For years, it has been consulted by the Department when important measures affecting teachers were contemplated. The body which, in 1920, revised the course of study consisted of a larger number of teachers than of inspectors. Recently, there have been formal and informal gatherings of both under the Director for the discussion of educational subjects; and many have felt that the day of co-operation has already dawned. With the great improvement in their conditions and prospects, the teachers feel that they are free to undertake measures affecting the higher ideals and the wider outlook of the service.

This was seen in the formation of an Australian Teachers' Federation in Sydney in 1921, and in the first congress held by this body in Melbourne in 1922. Among the subjects considered were: "Aims and Ideals of Australian Education," "The Press as a Factor in Education," "Adolescence," "The Mentally Deficient," "Travelling Scholarships for Teachers," "Co-ordination of the Work of Technical Schools and their Relation to the University," "A Federal Bureau

of Education," "Australia in Relation to the Pacific." A conference which has these subjects on its agenda paper cannot be accused of selfish, sectional, or parochial aims or narrowness.

A meeting in Sydney in 1921 of the inspectors of the different States is another evidence that, among the officers of the Education Departments, there is arising a consciousness of the service that education is rendering and may render to the upbuilding of Australian nationhood.

Teachers.—Apart from unions, a word may be added concerning teachers as Departmental and as national workers. The true teacher is a spiritual worker, and his best work cannot be measured by any device of man, and cannot be paid by any standard. His delight is in the child and in the child's development, and his greatest reward is the consciousness that he has aided this.

Such teachers are to be found throughout the service in the lonely schools of the bush, in the infant-rooms, and in the higher class-rooms of all grades of school. They mould by their influence, inspire by their example, and form character through every incident of daily life. The State schools rightly conceived are workshops where lives are being shaped and directed; and he is an enemy to the community who, ignorant of their aims and spirit, belittles the teachers and their work. No profession to-day, save that of the clergy, better preaches the gospel of service, or brings to its daily work a higher conception of duty or a more unselfish aim. In the true sense, teaching is a mission, and the teacher's life is a dedicated life.

CHAPTER XXXII.

THE TEACHERS' COLLEGE AND THE TRAINING OF THE TEACHER.

Importance of Training.—In several of the chapters, we have seen how the demands of the new time, calling on the teacher to know and to gauge the intelligence of the child and to be an experimenter in method and management, make the professional training of the teacher imperative. No thoughtful person can escape the conclusion that, if the plumber, the dentist, the chemist, and the doctor require a long course of special training, the teacher's need is even greater, and the injury to the community greater if he does not receive it. The pity is that British countries, dominated by the "three R's" theory, by the system of payment by results, and by the conception of the teacher's office derived from the dame school and embodied in the phrase, "Anybody can be a teacher," awoke late to the importance of training. We can see this still when any new type of school is instituted. The beginnings are made, regulations are drafted, and later, after make-shift arrangements have been established, there is the dawning consciousness that teachers should be trained for the work.

Most of the continental countries have a different history. If Holland had the pupil-teacher system before England, she required all who passed through it to enter a Teachers' College. Germany has trained all her teachers for many decades. France, some years ago, when about to introduce a new type of school, said, "We must wait till we have trained all the teachers we need." The attitude of these countries, which is the right attitude, is well summed up in the words of Cygnæus, the great Finnish educationist, who, when considering the organization of the

educational system of his native land, declared: "I will begin at the logical beginning, at the most fundamental point, I will first start a training college for teachers. If I have a supply of able and effective teachers, I have the most important thing."

Training by Practice: The Pupil-teacher System.—As we have seen in previous chapters, Victoria has always had a large number of pupil teachers, and the total number has remained almost constant throughout the years. In 1900, there were 1,732 pupil teachers and monitors in the schools; in 1921, there were 1,765 junior teachers. In 1903, there were 1,663 of them and 999 assistants, a ratio of 5 : 3. Feeling the weight of tradition, and aware of the impossibility of altering this state of affairs till a better public opinion had been created, the Director set himself to mend it by recommending better salaries, and by requiring higher scholastic attainments of the candidates on their entrance. It was to mark this better state that the name pupil teacher was altered to junior teacher by Act 2006 (1905).

Higher qualifications could not be demanded till there were the higher schools to furnish it. The Melbourne Continuation School (established in 1905), the agricultural high schools established in the following years, and the large number of secondary schools of all kinds established after the passing of Act 2301 (December, 1910) provided abundant opportunities to gain these qualifications; so we find that, while, in 1905, the entrance age and qualifications of a pupil teacher were set down at fourteen years and the Merit Certificate respectively, in 1914, they were sixteen years and the Intermediate or Leaving Certificate. (The age has since been raised to 17, the other qualifications remaining the same.) In 1900, the salaries of male pupil teachers ranged over a four years' course from £30 to £60, and of females from £24 to £48. By Act 3059 (1920), the scale of salaries became: Males:—1st year, £60; 2nd

year, £72; 3rd year, £84. Females:—1st year, £50; 2nd year, £60; 3rd year, £70. An addition of £12 was given for the Intermediate or the Second-class Certificate, and of £24 for the Leaving Certificate or the First-class Certificate.

Entering with the qualifications and at the salaries just specified, the junior teacher is expected to pass, in his first year, in the theory of education, nature-study, music, drawing, etc.; and, in his second year, in the second parts of these subjects. For the junior teachers in the metropolitan area, special evening classes are held in these subjects at the Melbourne High School, and all others are instructed through correspondence classes. When the junior teacher has attained the age of 21 years, and has served at least one year in the first class, he may apply for a country school, with a commencing salary, as a fifth-class teacher, of £156. The higher certificates and the higher positions in the service are now open to him, if he has ability and industry.

No steps yet taken have stopped the decline in the number of male candidates. In 1907, the ratio of male junior teachers to all teachers was 7.33 per cent.; and, to-day, it is 4.27 per cent. There is also the fact that the number of junior teachers entering or leaving the Teachers' College each year and intending to teach in the elementary school, though about double what it was in the early years of the century, is still only a third or a fourth of the total number of teachers entering the elementary-school service. This means that a large number of these teachers receive their whole training through the junior-teacher system. It is true that this system, in the past, has imparted skill in class management and in the art of instruction to many intending teachers. It has also helped to produce the thoroughness in all aspects of work which has in previous chapters received due recognition. Many of the leading teachers and inspectors through it received their training, and the incentive to seek self-improvement and to labor to

deserve professional advancement. A new day has, however, dawned; and, with it, an increased recognition of the need for a system which, while retaining all the good in the old, will afford a deeper and broader cultural, scientific, and professional training. The monitorial system was abolished by Act 2006 (1905).

The Teachers' College.—The history of the Teachers' College since its re-opening in 1900 may be divided into three eras.

The first of these was from 1900 till 1908 inclusive. The course was for two years, and it combined many of the subjects of the secondary school with a professional training. All students took the same subjects in the first year: English, Latin, history, mathematics, science, nature-study, drawing, manual training, and education; and so most of the students could pass the examination for matriculation at its close. The passing of this examination became the custom more and more as the meaning and value of the Diploma course at the University broke upon the students. In the second year, all the men and some of the women who had matriculated entered for the first year of the Diploma of Education course at the University; the other men studied at the college; and the remaining women took the course for the Infant Teacher's Certificate. In this way, the Department was supplied with teachers for some of the infant-rooms, for better positions in elementary schools, and for positions in the new secondary schools.

In 1908, the dawn of the next era was announced by the arrival at the college of a few students who had spent four years at the Melbourne Continuation School, and had gained the Senior Public Certificate and a Senior scholarship. An experiment was tried: those without previous training were allowed to enter the Diploma course in their first year, and were allowed to stay for three years to gain both the Diploma and a degree.

In view of the increasing number of students who would henceforth enter with a three or four years' course at a secondary school and with matriculation, new regulations were made. So, from 1908 till 1913 inclusive, there were in the college a decreasing number of students studying on the old lines, and an increasing number who spent their two years studying for the Diploma. These differed from the older type in their higher scholastic attainments, and also in a shorter experience, as they were required to have spent but one year as a junior teacher. A few of the best of them were given a third year to complete their degree. Teachers trained under the old pupil-teacher system shook their heads when 30 of those were admitted in 1909, and some prophesied disaster; but when, after Act 2301 had become law, these young teachers passed unhesitatingly into the many higher elementary schools which were immediately opened at the beginning of 1911 and made of their work a success, it was seen that the older system was doomed.

During these years, the college was passing from the old single-type of student to three types. The presence of the students of the Kindergarten Union emphasized the value of a two years' course for kindergarten and infant-room work; the increasing number of high schools increased the demand for secondary teachers; and there were complaints that few of the best students were being trained for the work of the elementary schools. New regulations were, therefore, needed, and were demanded in 1913 by a change which converted the Diploma course from a two years of arts or science (with education—theory and practice—in addition) to a three years' course—two years of arts or science, and one year spent exclusively on education.

Since 1914, the college has been divided into three departments; and, in recent years, matriculation is the entrance scholastic requirement for all. The infant-teacher's course is for two years, the primary

for one, and the secondary for three. In each, a few of the best students are rewarded by being given an extra year, which is always spent at the University. In a few years, almost all the secondary students will be leaving with a degree and the Diploma of Education.

These changes have been further marked by the increasing attention paid to professional training. In the first era, all students received lectures in psychology as applied to education, and all spent one week each month (for seven or eight months) in practising. This practising was somewhat haphazard, as there were no special practising schools, and the good received by the student depended much on the goodwill and ability of the head teacher, and, particularly, of his assistants. As there was no secondary practising school from 1903 till 1909 (inclusive), it was impossible to give any adequate training to secondary students in those years.

To-day, much of this is changed. In the chapter on "The Infant-room," attention has been called to the four practising schools and kindergartens in which the future infant teachers under sympathetic skilled management spend all their mornings. Five large elementary schools convenient to the college have been proclaimed practising schools; and, in these, and in the four rural schools attached to some of these, and in the group of four rural schools at East Kew, the future elementary teachers are trained. For the first eight months of the college year, these spend three mornings of every week in practice—practice and theory thus going hand in hand throughout the year; and the last five or six weeks of the college years are spent at continuous practice in the rural schools. Since 1910, the secondary students have been trained in the University High School, and in the high and higher elementary schools.

Not only are there special schools, but there are specialists in training. Many members of the staffs of the practising schools have been selected for this

purpose; but, besides these, there are masters or mistresses of method in each course, who spend in supervision all the time the students are practising.

Great changes in the curriculum of the kindergarten and primary students have taken place. Many of the old secondary subjects have disappeared; English and history are still retained for culture purposes; but, beyond these, all the subjects are either connected with education, or, like nature-study, drawing, music, and manual training, are specially required in schools. The aims and principles of modern education now embrace some of its philosophy and some of its developments, and every student receives a course of experimental education, so that he may be able to apply the tests for intelligence and classify different types of mind. In the education course for secondary students, which is a University course, all this work is much extended, and much of it is done under specialists. The course for the infant teachers is also highly specialized.

The college re-opened in 1900 with 57 students. For several years, the numbers remained at about 70; then they rose to 90; and, for several years before 1914, they reached 120. As the course throughout was for two years, the number leaving each year must have been 35, 45, or 60. In all these years, the elementary schools alone must have required 300 new teachers each year. For some years after 1900, the small number of candidates for entrance to the college course was partly due to Act 1642 (1900), which permitted first-class pupil teachers to become seventh-class teachers of rural schools at a salary of £100 per annum; and, as students with the Trained Teacher's Certificate had usually to commence in rural schools as sixth-class teachers, many pupil teachers preferred the position and salary. They were ignorant of the advantages of training, and they were unaware of the developments that were taking place, and of the many new positions being created which only trained teachers might

fill. In recent years, the number of candidates desiring entrance has far exceeded the number of places; and a special committee weighs the relative merits and selects the number required. A student leaving the college has a higher status and a better salary than he would have had otherwise, and, through his certificate, his training, and the incentive given to his ambition, he is placed on the way to reach one of the higher positions of the service.

Since 1904, Saturday and evening classes have been held at the college for teachers in infant-rooms within the metropolitan area who desire to obtain the Infant Teacher's Certificate. These receive satisfactory courses of lectures but no supervision in practice. In early years, they numbered from 100 to 150, but, in recent years, from 40 to 50. As may be seen from the chapter on "The Infant-room," about 150 infant teachers throughout the State are instructed by correspondence for this certificate. Since 1910, the college has helped to train classes of domestic-arts students, each class continuing for two years and numbering 30 students. Since 1914, a number of the manual-arts students have been somewhat loosely connected with the college; and, for the last two or three years, there has been the same connexion with a class for training teachers for commercial subjects. Apart from Saturday, evening, and correspondence classes, the number of students receiving a full course of training in recent years has been:—

Course	Length	No. of Students	Leaving each year
Secondary	3 years	72	24
Primary	1 year	79	79
Infant Teachers .. .	2 years	24	12
Manual Arts	3 years	27	9
Domestic Arts	2 years	23	12
Commerce	1 year	11	11
Diploma XX.	3 years	51	17
		286	164

For a few years (1913-1916), there was a six months' course for rural teachers. In recent years, the college has trained from 10 to 20 students each year for private kindergartens.

Since 1900, the Teachers' College owes much to its boarding establishment for the formative influences it has exerted on the lives of its students. Even in the years preceding 1890, when the students were scattered in various boarding-houses, they always considered that they had derived as much benefit from the social intercourse, the frequent discussions, and the clash of personality with personality, as from the lectures. Since 1900, the resident men have lived in one wing of the college, and the resident women in the other. In the dining-room, on the sports' grounds, as well as within the lecture-rooms—throughout the day and in the social hour of the evening—the two sexes meet freely, each exerting its influence on the other. Few colleges offer such a unique experience, or such a means of broadening, strengthening, and refining the lives of their students.

The value of social life, its necessity for the growing adolescent, has not yet been fully appreciated by government and other systems of education, in which too often education means only or chiefly instruction. In the adolescent years, most of the "natures" of man have a re-birth and a wonderful unfoldment. For them, and especially for the later years, education should include the imparting of ideals of life and conduct, the development of the social nature, and that intercourse of spirit with spirit, and that clash of personality with personality which enables the individual to realize himself and to adjust himself to others in all kinds of situations. The intercourse of the sexes on an equal footing and in an atmosphere of trust and of frank speech is indispensable to this form of education; and it is to be hoped that, in all future extensions of the college, this will be provided for.

The close proximity of the college to the University has aided in its development, and in the future will aid still more. Once the students have entered the doors of University subjects, they desire to go farther; and, besides this incentive, the presence of the great denominational affiliated colleges sets a standard of scholarship and attainments. As all students at entrance are required to have passed an examination entitling to matriculate, it would be easy to make arrangements for all to study one or more subjects at the University. This is a probable development. The frequent appearance of the names of students of the Teachers' College, and the lengthening of the secondary students' course to four years, are leading to a higher recognition of the college by University circles, and are bringing nearer the day when the Teachers' College will be an affiliated college as Ormond, Trinity, Queen's, or Newman; and when its students will be on a more equal footing with the students of these great institutions, and with the students for all the great professions. The teacher's work can not be regarded as a profession till the preparation for it is on a level with that for the other professions.

NOTE.—The Domestic Arts Hostel and Domestic Arts College, which belong to this chapter, have been dealt with in a preceding chapter.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

THE DEPARTMENT AND THE GREAT WAR. FINAL WORDS.

The Enlisted Men.—There could be no more fitting close to this record of progress than the account of the response made by the pupils, teachers, and officers of the Department to the call of the Great War. As at least three-fourths of the school population belongs to the State schools, these schools can claim some share in the prowess and in the fame of the men of the A.I.F. If these men, in their letters and in other ways, displayed a high degree of intelligence, if they manifested a heroism not surpassed by any army of ancient or of modern times, if they were obedient to authority because of their own acquiescence in its value and necessity and not because of regulations, the State schools can lay claim to a share of the credit for all this.

Our immediate concern, however, is with the Victorian Education Department's part in the war.

Of the 2,297 male teachers and officials in the Department's employment, not more than 1,500 were between the ages of 18 and 45, and, of them, a considerable number were married men. These men, however, had not preached duty with lip service, they had lived it; and so, though their souls abhorred war, 752 of them volunteered and were accepted. The names of 104 others who were rejected are known; but there were others who kept their offer and rejection secret.

The distinction with which the enlisted men served their country can be learned from the many honors and decorations awarded to them—101 in all. Among

Bar, and 4 D.S.O.'s. Stronger evidence if more tragic, of this distinction is furnished by the fact that 146 men, one in five, fell.

Those Who Remained Behind.—The story of the Department's achievements in war-time is furnished by *The Education Department's Record of War Service*. It may be questioned if any other Education Department, any private school or college, any university of ancient standing or of modern foundation, or any church organization, can parallel the variety of patriotic services, the numerous instances of self-sacrificing effort, or the amount of comforts and of money contributed, which are recorded in that book.

War was declared on August the 4th, and, within a week, the women teachers had formed themselves into a patriotic league, which, at a great meeting in the Town Hall on the 15th of August, was merged into the Education Department War Relief Organization. Its objects will be clearly seen as we proceed; but a few of the articles of its faith published in 1918 may here be noted: "The practical aim of a system of public education is to prepare boys and girls for the highest type of citizenship. . . ." "This citizenship . . . is shown in action by readiness to make sacrifices for, and in other ways to serve, the community of which we form a part. . . ." "A great wrong is committed against the children of to-day if they are allowed to stand idly by when the best of our citizens are offering themselves devotedly to secure the nation's safety." It was in this faith and with this creed that the work of the organization was begun, carried on, and finished.

The inspectorates, in each of which committees were at once formed, and *The School Paper* and the *Education Gazette* enabled the Department to reach the most distant homes, to weld all its schools into its organization, and to keep all in touch with its doings.

Within a few days after the 15th of August, a central depot for the receipt and dispatch of material for special garments and for other comforts for soldiers was established in the Montague School, South Melbourne; and so enormously did the work grow that a spacious building had to be added in 1916. The organization and the "books" were devised by the staff of teachers (some of whom had been superannuated), and so well was the work done that there was neither hitch nor delay. The central executive voted the funds; wool and raw material were forwarded to schools; and these returned the socks, Balaclava caps, gloves, mittens, shirts, etc., which were sent in great bales to the front.

By 1919, there had been forwarded 400,000 articles of comfort. Letters from the children accompanied the socks, etc.; and it would be hard to estimate whether the gifts or the letters brought the greater pleasure to the soldier so far from home.

Had they done nothing more than provide supplies for the hospitals, the State schools would have been distinguished for the amount of their contributions and their admirable organization. The special committee for this was formed in 1916. The inspectorates were divided into eight groups, and each group in turn undertook to supply the Caulfield and other military hospitals with food-necessaries and luxuries till 1919. Without break or mistake, vegetables, fruit, poultry, rabbits, sheep, pork, cake, tea, eggs, tobacco, cigarettes, etc., poured into the hospitals in a regular and ever-increasing stream. The quantities forwarded were so great that they are meaningless to the ordinary mind. The following are some of them: Jam, honey, and preserves, 46 tons 2 cwt.; tea, 3 tons 4 cwt.; eggs, 65,060 dozen; bacon and ham, 12 tons 6 cwt.; potatoes, 126½ tons.

The War Savings effort commenced in January, 1918. It raised £217,419, and has the same story of

loving, self-sacrificing deeds to tell. One teacher wrote that his pupils had voluntarily agreed to devote the expenses of the annual picnic to war-saving certificates. One girl gave the money of her birthday present towards a war-savings certificate. In a small school of 11 pupils, five certificates were purchased by the money from the skins of rabbits captured by the pupils. Through the energy of the teacher, one small school in Gippsland was instrumental in raising £7,025.

Pupils from the city schools visited the hospitals and gave concerts. In Melbourne, at a physical-training display on the 9th of December, 1916, 30,000 spectators were astonished and delighted by the appearance, order, and skill of 10,000 young performers. The thrilling feature was the living word "ANZAC" within a living map of Australia, composed of 7,000 children. Besides these great events, there were concerts, fêtes, and efforts of individual schools; but these were never allowed to dim in the minds of pupils the value of self-sacrificing effort on the part of the individual child.

Some of the finest instances of self-sacrificing deeds came from small country schools. One boy grew broom-corn and, out of the brooms he made himself, brought £3 to his school fund. A teacher and his pupils harvested an acre of grape-vines, and, from the table-raisins they dried, £35 was contributed. Two boys took over an acre of ground, ploughed it, harrowed it, and sowed it with maize, and, eventually, gave the school funds £12 from the crop. Girls chopped firewood, delivered it themselves, and cheerfully gave the proceeds to the great cause. Boys and girls "gathered bones, fat, bottles, iron, kerosene-tins; they caught and skinned rabbits, trapped foxes, caught fish, and frogs, and leeches, dug gardens, cleared tracks, cleaned chimneys, swept schools, caught horses, did all kinds of odd jobs before and after school, gave up their holidays, and handed in the money thus gained, and wrote letters of cheer to

the men at the front." Were not they worthy of these men, and were they not preparing, in all of these acts, for great patriotic efforts in days of peace ahead?

Of schools between twenty and fifty pupils, one school raised £808; of schools under twenty pupils, one raised £379. One school of between one hundred and two hundred pupils in a country district contributed £1,667.

The most successful financial efforts of pupils and teachers were the annual Flower Days. By the three that were held, £124,000 was obtained.

To encourage these young workers and to organize them, there was formed the League of Young Gardeners, and, later, the Young Workers' Patriotic Guild, which included the former league.* A handsome certificate was issued to the child who raised £1; and, if he raised £5, the Department's seal (in gold) was embossed upon the certificate. When the guild terminated its activities on the 31st of December, 1919, it had a roll of 80,000 members, of whom, 20,481 had earned £1; 813, £5; 164, £10; 15, £15; 14, £20; 3, £30; 1, £60; and 1, £65. The two highest were girls.

The total sums raised by the Department's manifold organizations and efforts, together with accrued interest, totalled the great sum of £445,000. Of the larger sums donated, there may be mentioned £100,278 paid to Repatriation Funds; £45,000 to the Australian Red Cross; £30,000 to the British Red Cross; £25,000 to the State War Council; £12,942 to the Y.M.C.A.; £11,750 to the French Red Cross; £10,800 to the Belgian Relief Fund; £7,370 to the Salvation Army; £6,600 to the Returned Soldiers' Association. Sums of varying amounts were paid to all deserving appeals.

*Miss M. Cox, the organizer of this guild, deserves special mention for her work in connexion with it, and for much other work during the war.

Little wonder that the *Age* of August the 13th, 1918, declared: "No other patriotic organization in Victoria can claim achievements to equal those of the Education Department's War Relief Fund. No other organization has inspired the same personal sacrifice, cheerful direct giving, and patriotic fervor. The influence of the Fund has spread into every corner of the State, however remote; and there is not a hamlet that is unable to take to itself the pride of having rendered service for the Fund. The record of patriotic effort by school-children is one of the brightest chapters in the story of the Great War."

One last word on the £95,000 still on hand, but already allocated. Of it, £85,000 is to form a fund for the relief of incapacitated soldiers and their dependants; and £10,000 is to be expended on building a school in Villers-Bretonneux, the French town which Melbourne "adopted," and which is forever associated with the great deeds of the A.I.F. There is imagination and sympathy in these gifts. They are fitting memorials to the Fund itself. If patriotic fervor characterized the raising of the Fund, may we not add that wisdom and foresight characterized its allocation!

The Head Office.—More credit in this rapid sketch should have been given to the successive Ministers of Public Instruction who have helped to enlighten public and Parliamentary opinion, and to procure that more generous treatment which has been accorded to education in recent years. The importance of the Department's work has been increasingly recognized, and usually one of the ablest members of the Cabinet has been made Minister of Public Instruction. The present Lawson Government has just raised all salaries, is spending £175,000 in buildings at the University, is increasing the University grant, and is proposing to spend £250,000 on school-buildings.

This sketch has made no mention of the officers of the clerical and accountancy staffs, who, so quietly, unobtrusively, and effectively do their indispensable

work. Few teachers know what the service owes to Mr. A. C. Witton, Accountant from 1903 till 1915, and to Mr. J. C. Jensen, the present Accountant, for their management of the accounts. All know Mr. W. Webster, who has been Secretary to the Classifiers for many years, and in charge of the arrangements relating to the promotion and transfer of teachers. Well known, too, is Mr. J. E. Thomas, who is in charge of the examination records. Mr. J. C. Newham, B.A., who was chief clerk from 1909 till 1912, and Mr. C. S. McPherson, who was chief clerk from 1912 till 1920, will long be remembered. The career of Mr. M. H. Bottoms, the present Secretary of the Department, is a fine instance of the rapid promotion possible to a man of ability and energy in our service.

When the manifold activities of the Education Department of to-day are contrasted with the humble beginnings of the National and Denominational Boards, and when we consider the restricted outlook over the field of education taken by public men in 1872, the stage reached by us in the evolution of public education must be regarded with gratification and encouragement. For there is, throughout Victoria, a wider vision of the possibilities of the school and a quickened educational conscience as evidenced by the persistent demands for facilities for higher education, and by a readiness on the part of school communities to share in the expense of providing high schools and technical schools and to endow them with scholarships. It is manifested, also, by the place which the school is taking, especially in the country districts, as the center of community life.

The opportunities provided by the State in recent years for secondary and technical education have saved numbers of intelligent young people from drifting into the dead-ends of unskilled employment, while it has given to others the qualifications necessary for securing the highest prizes which are available for developed talent and character. Life for these young folk has become fuller, revealing possibilities and

ideals of which they would have otherwise been ignorant. Leaders in every one of the State's activities may be named who owe their advancement to their present position to the State system of education without which they could not have qualified themselves for the worthy places they now fill. It is safe to prophesy that, with the wider field at present covered by the Department's activities, the majority of those who will, in the future, occupy positions of power and influence in our State will have received their education in the national schools.

All the world over, men are looking to education—taking it in its proper sense as including the religious element, and regarding the school as only one of its many component parts—as the solvent of much of the present industrial unrest and social warfare. Nothing is more remarkable than the changed conception of the State's duty in education, which has found expression in Great Britain in the Education Acts since 1900. Embodied in these Acts is the idea that it is the duty of the State to provide an education for all its young people up to the age of 16 or 18, so that everyone may be fully equipped to discharge efficiently all the responsibilities of vocation and of citizenship.

Looking back over the social condition of our State, we see a very great improvement, much of which can be attributed to the influence of widespread elementary education. It points to the fact that education is gradually leavening the community; but it is shallow thinking to attribute, as is sometimes done, social delinquencies to the failure and the shortcomings of the school system. "That education in the widest sense is the great lever for raising humanity is true. That the school alone can supply that lever is false. In order that the work of education may succeed, it must be a co-operation between all who are charged with the bringing up of children. The school is not the only educational agent."

The State schools are sharing to-day in that diffused Christian consciousness and that application of scientific methods to social phenomena which is building more hospitals, preventing disease from arising, teaching people rules of health, securing co-operation and intelligent understanding in industry, providing parks and playgrounds, planting free kindergartens, creches, and sisterhoods in slums or crowded districts, censoring cinema entertainments and other performances in order to prevent them from lowering taste and morals, altering the attitude towards the criminal and demanding that he should be tested for his intelligence and saved from degrading social environment, and calling on the community to convert slum areas into garden suburbs so that every family will indeed have a home .

When the work of the present Director of Education for the past twenty years is reviewed, it is seen that one of the greatest results achieved has been the bringing together of the people and their schools, and of making the education of the young a really live question. The Education Department has been linked up with many other activities which are making for good citizenship; and it is being realized more and more each year that the school must be the starting point for all those movements which make for the best citizenship. The Department has, in recent years, and at no time more conspicuously than during the strenuous years of the Great War, preached the gospel that the purpose of the school is to train the highest type of citizen, and that citizenship best expresses itself in ability and willingness to serve.

No one realizes more fully than the educationist the magnitude of the task of making a better world. Great progress has already been effected, but an immense amount remains to be done before the State can secure the highest results from a complete system of education. The leaven, however, is working, and,

in all schools from the little bush-school to the most highly equipped secondary school, well-trained teachers, working with vision and enthusiasm, are realizing in the lives of their pupils a fine conception of what the school can do. All who work in the field of education should be invincible optimists. Our survey of education in Victoria undoubtedly makes us optimistic.

“For while the tired waves, vainly breaking,
Seem here no painful inch to gain,
Far back, through creeks and inlets making
Comes silent, flooding in, the main.”

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